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The Negro Handbook

1946-1947

Edited by
FLORENCE MURRAY

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THE NEGRO HANDBOOK

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FOREWORD

THIS is the third issue of *The Negro Handbook*, the first two having been published in 1942 and 1944.

The idea for such a series of books came to me as a result of my experiences as a newspaper reporter, an editor, and a research worker. The lack of a convenient source of reference on current facts and figures about the American Negro seemed to me to be a grave handicap to efficient newspaper work. This lack was further emphasized by the many inquiries that came to the editor's desk concerning current and contemporary affairs of the Negro.

The aim of this book, therefore, is an attempt to supply that lack; to present current, factual information in a concise and handy medium and, in so doing, to give a picture of the status of the Negro in American life.

In presenting the information set forth in these pages, the editor has made no effort to evaluate it or to analyze it in terms of sociological or economic significance.

Since the Negro is the subject of the book, all persons and groups mentioned herein are Negroes unless otherwise designated, or unless they are of sufficient prominence to require no identification.

I am deeply indebted to my parents, Delilah and Freeman H. M. Murray, without whose encouragement and assistance the compilation of this and previous issues of *The Handbook* could not have been possible.

My thanks and appreciation are given, also, to government officials and agencies, to private institutions, to individuals in various positions, to my personal friends, and to those who so readily endorsed my work before its initial publication.

FLORENCE MURRAY

New York, N.Y.

September 1, 1946

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POPULATION

DEFINITION OF AMERICAN NEGRO

The United States Census has defined the word "Negro" for racial enumeration in instructions to its enumerators in the following manner:

A person of mixed white and Negro blood should be returned as a Negro, no matter how small the percentage of Negro blood. Both black and mulatto persons are to be returned as Negroes, without distinction. A person of mixed Indian and Negro blood should be returned as a Negro, unless the Indian blood very definitely predominates and he is universally accepted in the community as an Indian.

Mixtures of nonwhite races should be reported according to the race of the father, except that Negro-Indian should be reported as Negro.

As to what constitutes Negro blood, it is generally understood that Negroes are persons of African descent.

There is no definite or uniform legal answer to the question of what constitutes a Negro in America, according to Charles S. Mangum, Jr., in his book *The Legal Status of the Negro*, published by the North Carolina University Press in 1940. The definitions given by various courts, he points out, seem to reflect the methods which the various states have developed in meeting the problem of race relations.

The courts have been far from

unanimous as to the proportion of African blood necessary to classify an individual as a Negro [writes Dr. Mangum]. Some states have defined the term by a general statute, while others have defined it only with respect to particular subjects treated by their laws, such as marriage or education. . . . Thus, an individual of mixed blood may be classified as a white person as far as the law with respect to marriage is concerned, and as a Negro with respect to the public school system.

Before the Civil War, it seems to have been a general rule in the slave states to presume that a Negro was a slave, Dr. Mangum explains; but in the years following the war it became increasingly clear that the exigencies of the situation in the South demanded that there be some attempt at a legal definition of the words "Negro" or "colored person."

Ever since slaves were landed on American shores there has been a good deal of racial intermixture. Some sociologists have expressed the opinion that this intermixing has been on the decrease since the end of slavery. However, it is estimated that millions of persons with Negro blood are identifying themselves with white people and being recognized as white.

It is the general belief that a scant few Negroes in the United States have no other than Negro or African blood.

ESTIMATED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, BY AGE, COLOR, AND SEX: JULY 1, 1944

Source: Bureau of the Census

Editor's Note: Only the nonwhite estimates are given in the following tables. This group includes Negroes and other nonwhite races. Negroes constitute more than 95 percent of the nonwhite citizens in the country.

INCLUDING ARMED FORCES OVERSEAS

Date and Age JULY 1, 1944	All Classes Total	White		Nonwhite	
		Total	Male	Female	Total
All ages.....	138,100,874	123,790,994	62,020,485	61,770,509	14,309,880
Under 5 years....	12,644,540	11,112,109	5,673,797	5,438,312	1,532,431
5 to 9 years.....	11,168,095	9,670,813	4,931,071	4,739,742	1,497,282
10 to 14 years....	10,748,443	9,401,561	4,778,004	4,623,557	1,346,882
15 to 19 years....	11,856,636	10,473,628	5,309,693	5,163,935	1,383,008
20 to 24 years....	12,195,831	10,865,287	5,433,550	5,431,737	1,330,544
25 to 29 years....	11,400,215	10,191,969	5,015,875	5,176,094	1,208,246
30 to 34 years....	10,892,720	9,753,788	4,811,013	4,942,775	1,138,932
35 to 39 years....	10,006,173	9,016,664	4,473,390	4,543,274	989,509
40 to 44 years....	9,266,785	8,304,204	4,138,857	4,165,347	962,581
45 to 49 years....	8,462,857	7,691,071	3,858,046	3,833,025	771,786
50 to 54 years....	7,795,135	7,158,441	3,627,497	3,530,944	636,694
55 to 59 years....	6,621,223	6,133,375	3,128,058	3,005,317	487,848
60 to 64 years....	5,166,992	4,802,443	2,417,679	2,384,764	364,549
65 to 69 years....	4,002,453	3,731,964	1,835,115	1,896,849	270,489
70 to 74 years....	2,895,674	2,713,992	1,304,744	1,409,248	181,682
75 years and over	2,977,102	2,769,685	1,284,096	1,485,589	207,417
21 years and over	98,223,607	80,947,197	40,227,603	40,719,594	8,276,410
Median age (years)	29.6	30.1	29.9	30.3	25.3

EXCLUDING ARMED FORCES OVERSEAS

Date and Age JULY 1, 1944	All Classes Total	White		Nonwhite	
		Total	Male	Female	Total
All ages.....	132,563,271	118,602,260	56,862,777	61,739,483	13,961,011
Under 5 years....	12,644,540	11,112,109	5,673,797	5,438,312	1,532,431
5 to 9 years.....	11,168,095	9,670,813	4,931,071	4,739,742	1,497,282
10 to 14 years....	10,748,443	9,401,561	4,778,004	4,623,557	1,346,882
15 to 19 years....	11,305,978	9,957,857	4,793,922	5,163,935	1,348,121
20 to 24 years....	9,982,174	8,791,177	3,370,467	5,420,710	1,190,997
25 to 29 years....	9,710,781	8,608,940	3,442,774	5,166,166	1,101,841
30 to 34 years....	10,282,240	9,181,684	4,243,665	4,938,019	1,100,556
35 to 39 years....	9,696,497	8,726,420	4,186,106	4,540,314	970,077
40 to 44 years....	9,163,708	8,207,446	4,043,955	4,163,591	956,162
45 to 49 years....	8,418,320	7,649,325	3,816,784	3,832,541	768,995
50 to 54 years....	7,784,007	7,148,011	3,617,182	3,530,829	635,996
55 to 59 years....	6,617,369	6,129,765	3,124,448	3,005,317	487,604
60 to 64 years....	5,165,890	4,801,411	2,416,647	2,384,764	364,479
65 to 69 years....	4,002,453	3,731,964	1,835,115	1,896,849	270,489
70 to 74 years....	2,895,674	2,713,992	1,304,744	1,409,248	181,682
75 years and over	2,977,102	2,769,685	1,284,096	1,485,589	207,417
21 years and over	84,677,188	76,686,851	35,998,283	40,688,568	7,990,337
Median age (years)	30.4	31.0	31.7	30.3	25.3

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY STATES: 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

The white population of the United States constituted 89.8 percent of the total population on April 1, 1940, the Negroes 9.8 percent and other races

0.4 percent. Changes in the racial composition of the United States population between 1930 and 1940 were negligible.

The whites constituted the same proportion of the total population in 1930 as in 1940, the Negroes constituted 9.7 percent of the 1930 population and other races 0.5 percent. The Census returns also show that only 9.7 percent of the whites were foreign born in 1940, as compared with 12.7 percent in 1930.

White Population

Between 1930 and 1940 the white population as a whole increased by 7.2 percent, the same proportionate increase as that for the entire population. Native whites increased 10.9 percent, whereas foreign-born whites decreased 18.3 percent. These changes contrast sharply with those of the decade 1920 to 1930 during which the white population as a whole increased 16.3 percent, the native whites 18.7, and the foreign-born whites 2.0 percent.

The 18.3 percent decrease in the foreign-born white population between 1930 and 1940 is in large measure due to the curtailment of foreign immigration during this decade, there having been a net loss through emigration of 47,000 persons. The mortality among its members has been relatively high during this intercensal decade because of the large percentage of old persons in this group. Unless the present quota laws are relaxed, which hardly seems probable, the foreign-born whites will have ceased to form a numerically important element of our population within 20 or 30 years.

Negro Population

In 1940 Negroes numbered 12,865,518, an increase of 974,375, or 8.2 percent, over the number enumerated in 1930. This rate of increase was only a little greater than that for the total population (7.2) and was considerably lower than the rate of increase for Negroes in the preceding decade, which was 13.6 percent.

The regional and divisional patterns of Negro population increase were

quite different from those for the total population. In all three divisions of the South the Negroes showed a smaller proportional increase than the total population between 1930 and 1940, while in the divisions of the North and West their rates of increase were uniformly greater than those for the total population.

The Negro population increased 15.8 percent in the North during the decade just past, 5.8 percent in the South, and 41.8 percent in the West. These facts indicate that there was a large migration of Negroes during the 1930's from the South to the North and West, probably out of the rural areas in the South to the urban areas of other parts of the country.

Over three fourths of the Negro population (77.0 percent) still lived in the South in 1940, but this represents a slight decrease from the proportion of 78.7 in 1930. The North had 21.7 percent of the total Negro population in 1940, as compared with 20.3 in 1930, and the West had 1.3 in 1940, as compared with 1.0 in 1930.

Population by Race, for the United States: 1940 and 1930

Race	1940	1930
All classes	131,669,275	122,775,046
White	118,214,870	110,286,740
Native	106,795,732	96,303,335
Foreign born	11,419,138	13,983,405
Negro	12,865,518	11,891,143
Other races	588,887	597,163
Indian	333,696	332,397
Chinese	77,504	74,954
Japanese	126,947	138,834
Filipino	45,563	45,208
Hindu	2,405	3,130
Korean	1,711	1,860
All other	788	780

Negroes constituted 19.3 percent of the population of the United States in 1930. Since that time their proportion has decreased almost continuously. If one makes an adjustment for an undercount of Negroes in 1870, in the Reconstruction Period, 1940 marks the end of the first decade since that of 1800 to 1810 during which the proportion of Negroes in the total population has failed to decrease.

The increase in the proportion of

**POPULATION BY RACE, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY DIVISIONS
AND STATES: 1940**

Region, Division and State	All Classes	White	Negro	Other Races
United States	131,669,275	118,214,870	12,865,518	588,887
REGIONS:				
The North	76,120,109	73,206,738	2,790,193	123,178
The South	41,665,901	31,658,578	9,904,619	102,704
The West	13,883,265	13,349,554	170,706	363,005
THE NORTH:				
New England	8,437,290	8,329,146	101,509	6,635
Middle Atlantic	27,539,487	26,237,622	1,268,366	33,499
East North Central.....	26,626,342	25,528,451	1,069,326	28,565
West North Central.....	13,516,990	13,111,519	350,992	54,479
THE SOUTH:				
South Atlantic	17,823,151	13,095,227	4,698,863	29,061
East South Central.....	10,778,225	7,993,755	2,780,635	3,835
West South Central.....	13,064,525	10,569,596	2,425,121	69,808
THE WEST:				
Mountain	4,150,003	3,978,913	36,411	134,679
Pacific	9,733,262	9,370,641	134,295	228,326
NEW ENGLAND:				
Maine	847,226	844,543	1,304	1,379
New Hampshire	491,524	490,989	414	121
Vermont	359,231	358,806	384	41
Massachusetts	4,316,721	4,257,596	55,391	3,734
Rhode Island	713,346	701,805	11,024	517
Connecticut	1,709,242	1,675,407	32,992	843
MIDDLE ATLANTIC:				
New York	13,479,142	12,879,546	571,221	28,375
New Jersey	4,160,165	3,931,087	226,973	2,105
Pennsylvania	9,900,180	9,426,989	470,172	3,019
EAST NORTH CENTRAL:				
Ohio	6,907,612	6,566,531	339,461	1,620
Indiana	3,427,796	3,305,323	121,916	557
Illinois	7,897,241	7,504,202	387,446	5,593
Michigan	5,256,106	5,039,643	208,345	8,118
Wisconsin	3,137,587	3,112,752	12,158	12,677
WEST NORTH CENTRAL:				
Minnesota	2,792,300	2,768,982	9,928	13,390
Iowa	2,538,268	2,520,691	16,694	883
Missouri	3,784,664	3,539,187	244,386	1,091
North Dakota	641,935	631,464	201	10,270
South Dakota	642,961	619,075	474	23,412
Nebraska	1,315,834	1,297,624	14,171	4,039
Kansas	1,801,028	1,734,496	65,138	1,394
SOUTH ATLANTIC:				
Delaware	266,505	230,528	35,876	101
Maryland	1,821,244	1,518,481	301,931	832
Dist. of Columbia	663,091	474,326	187,266	1,499
Virginia	2,677,773	2,015,583	661,449	741
West Virginia	1,901,974	1,784,102	117,754	118
North Carolina	3,571,623	2,567,635	981,298	22,690
South Carolina	1,899,804	1,084,308	814,164	1,332
Georgia	3,123,723	2,038,278	1,084,927	518
Florida	1,897,414	1,381,986	514,198	1,230

**POPULATION BY RACE, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY DIVISIONS
AND STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

Region, Division and State	All Classes	White	Negro	Other Races
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL:				
Kentucky	2,845,627	2,631,425	214,031	171
Tennessee	2,915,841	2,406,906	508,736	199
Alabama	2,832,961	1,849,097	983,290	574
Mississippi	2,183,796	1,106,327	1,074,578	2,891
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL:				
Arkansas	1,949,387	1,466,084	482,578	725
Louisiana	2,363,880	1,511,739	849,303	2,838
Oklahoma	2,336,434	2,104,228	168,849	63,357
Texas	6,414,824	5,487,545	924,391	2,888
MOUNTAIN:				
Montana	559,456	540,468	1,120	17,868
Idaho	524,873	519,292	595	4,986
Wyoming	250,742	246,597	956	3,189
Colorado	1,123,296	1,106,502	12,176	4,618
New Mexico	531,818	492,312	4,672	34,834
Arizona	499,261	426,792	14,993	57,476
Utah	550,310	542,920	1,235	6,155
Nevada	110,247	104,030	664	5,553
PACIFIC:				
Washington	1,736,191	1,698,147	7,424	30,620
Oregon	1,089,684	1,075,731	2,565	11,388
California	6,907,387	6,596,763	124,306	186,318

whites during this long period was due to the heavy immigration of whites from abroad rather than to a greater rate of natural increase in the white than in the Negro population. In recent years this factor has become no longer an appreciable one, and the proportion of Negroes in the total population of the United States remained almost constant during the last decade, being 9.8 percent in 1940 and 9.7 percent in 1930.

Other Nonwhite Races

There were 333,696 Indians enumerated in the United States in 1940, mainly concentrated in the West North Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific states. This number represents an increase of 0.5 percent over the number enumerated in 1930, which was 332,397. The Indian population enumerated by the Census Bureau is somewhat smaller than that reported by the Office of Indian Affairs on the basis of their registration records.

Because of differences in definitions used by the two agencies and differences in methods of collecting the statistics, it is quite probable that many persons classified as Indian by the Office of Indian Affairs are returned by Census enumerators as Negro or white.

The Asiatic races (the Chinese, Japanese, Filipino, Korean, and Hindu) were concentrated mainly in the West, 76.0 percent of them living in the three Pacific Coast states, Washington, Oregon and California. Of these five races, only the Chinese and Filipinos increased their numbers, the Chinese showing a gain of 3.4 percent and the Filipinos showing an increase of 0.8 percent.

The other three races decreased, the Japanese by 8.6 percent, the Hindus by 23.2 percent, and the Koreans by 8.0 percent. Members of other nonwhite races than those already discussed, the Hawaiians, Samoans, Siamese, etc., numbered 788, as compared with 780 in 1930.

SEX COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION: 1940

Sex and Race

White males were more numerous than white females in 1940, but the excess of white males declined more than 875,000 between 1930 and 1940. The numbers in the two sexes have become practically the same for the native white (sex ratio 100.1), but the foreign-born white males still considerably outnumber the foreign-born white females (sex ratio 111.1).

Among Negroes, males have been outnumbered by females for a hundred years. The number of Negro males per 100 Negro females declined from 97.0 in 1930 to 95.0 in 1940. During these 10 years the increase in the number of Negro males was nearly 150,000 less than the increase in the number of Negro females. Higher mortality rates among Negro males account for most of the sex differences in Negro population growth.

The "other races," mainly Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino, had the highest sex ratio in 1940 (140.5), as well as in 1930 (150.6). Males predominated among Asiatic even more than among white immigrants, but since the enactment of the exclusion

acts these races have been approaching a more normal sex ratio.

Sex, Race, and Region

Differences in the sex ratio among the geographic regions, as well as among races, are reflections of differences in the balance of births and deaths and in selective internal migration. In the white population the sex ratio at birth is about 106 males per 100 females, and the sex ratio for non-white births, although lower, is also above 100.

Mortality of males is higher at almost every age, however; and with advancing age the excess of males gradually gives way to an excess of females unless compensated for by migration. Hence, the sex ratio of an area is also related to its age composition, as well as to its racial composition and the character of migration to and from it.

The number of males per 100 females in 1940 remained higher in the North than in the South, 100.4 as compared with 99.6, but the two ratios have been moving closer together. The South now has an excess of females, but in 1930 it had an excess of males.

URBAN PLACES WITH 2500 NEGRO INHABITANTS OR MORE: 1940

Forty percent of the total Negro population of the United States reside in 315 urban places, each of which had 2500 Negroes or more. The proportions for the Negro population of these places range from 0.8 percent to 72.2 percent. However, the population of each of 237 places had 10 percent or more Negroes.

Urban places with 2500 Negroes or more accounted for 5,000,000 Negroes, or 80 percent of the total urban Negro population returned in the census of 1940.

Changes during the 1930's

Between 1930 and 1940 the number of urban places having 2500 Negroes

or more increased from 263 to 315 and the number of Negroes living in such places increased by 966,866 or 23.1 percent.

The rate for the increase in the Negro population of urban places with 2500 Negroes or more was higher than the rate of increase for the Negro population in all urban areas (20.4 percent) and reflects movement from southern rural areas as well as migration from smaller cities to larger cities. During the 1930's the number of Negroes increased in 289 of the 315 specified urban places.

Urban Places by Regions

Of the total number of urban places

which had 2500 Negroes or more in 1940, 87 were in the North, 219 were in the South, and 9 were in the West. The combined Negro population for the specified urban places in the South represented only 29.6 percent of the total Negro population of that region, whereas, 75.8 percent of the total Negro population of the North and 61.2 percent of the total Negro population of the West resided in urban places which had 2500 Negroes or more.

In each region Negroes who lived in urban places with 2500 Negroes or more represented a large proportion of the urban Negro population, but the proportion (84.7 percent) of the northern urban Negro population which resided in places of this type was considerably higher than the corresponding proportion of the Western urban Negro population (73.6 percent) and somewhat higher than the corresponding proportion of the southern urban Negro population (81.1 percent).

Major Groups or Urban Places

In 1940 the Negro population of the

5 northern cities and the 6 southern cities which had more than 100,000 Negroes, totaled 2,082,051 and constituted 16.2 percent of the Negro population of the United States. The proportions for Negroes in the population for these 11 cities ranged from 6.1 percent to 41.5 percent, but the proportions for none of the northern cities in this group exceeded 13.3 percent.

Of the cities with 25,000 to 100,000 Negroes, 7 were in the North, 19 were in the South and 1 was in the West. In each of these cities, except Cleveland, Los Angeles, and Pittsburgh, Negroes represented 10 percent or more of the population. Among the cities in this classification, Winston-Salem, N.C., had the highest proportion (45.1 percent) of Negroes.

The total Negro population (844,666) of the 56 urban places which had between 10,000 and 25,000 Negroes accounted for 6.6 percent of all Negroes in the United States. Fourteen of these urban places were in the North, and 42 were in the South.

NEGRO POPULATION IN GROUPS OF URBAN PLACES, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SIZE OF NEGRO POPULATION, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

(Includes urban places which had 2500 Negro inhabitants or more)

Groups of Urban Places by Number of Negroes	Number of Places	1940 Negro Population
Total	315	5,152,149
Places of 100,000 or more Negroes.....	11	2,082,051
Places of 50,000 to 100,000 Negroes.....	9	576,971
Places of 25,000 to 50,000 Negroes.....	18	656,570
Places of 10,000 to 25,000 Negroes.....	56	844,666
Places of 5000 to 10,000 Negroes.....	70	477,541
Places of 2500 to 5000 Negroes.....	151	514,350
Cumulative summary:		
Places with 100,000 or more Negroes.....	11	2,082,051
Places with 25,000 or more Negroes.....	38	3,315,592
Places with 10,000 or more Negroes.....	94	4,160,258

The proportion (24.4 percent) for Negroes in Atlantic City, N.J., was larger than that for the Negro population of any other northern city with between 10,000 and 25,000 Negroes, but was smaller than the proportions for the Negro population of 31 of the 42 cities of this size in the South. In

4 of the southern cities Negroes represented somewhat more than half of the total population.

Urban places which had 2500 to 10,000 Negroes include 61 urban places in the North, 152 urban places in the South, and 8 urban places in the West. The southern urban places accounted

for approximately two thirds (68.9 percent) of the total Negro population for urban places which had between 2500 and 10,000 Negroes and com-

prised all except 2 of the 65 places in which Negroes represented more than 38 percent of the population.

NEGRO POPULATION OF URBAN PLACES WHICH HAD 2500 NEGRO INHABITANTS OR MORE: 1940

Urban Places		Percent of Total Popu- lation	Urban Places		Percent of Total Popu- lation
100,000 or More			10,000 to 25,000 (Cont.)		
New York, N. Y.	458,444	6.1	Raleigh, N. C.	15,818	33.7
Chicago, Ill.	277,731	8.2	Atlantic City, N. J.	15,668	24.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	250,880	13.0	Galveston, Tex.	15,432	25.4
Washington, D. C.	187,266	28.2	Newport News, Va.	15,283	41.2
Baltimore, Md.	165,843	19.3	Tulsa, Okla.	15,151	10.7
Detroit, Mich.	149,119	9.2	Austin, Tex.	14,861	16.9
New Orleans, La.	149,034	30.1	Youngstown, O.	14,615	8.7
Memphis, Tenn.	121,498	41.5	Toledo, O.	14,597	5.2
Birmingham, Ala.	108,938	40.7	Wilmington, Del.	14,256	12.7
St. Louis, Mo.	108,765	13.3	Greenville, S. C.	13,982	40.3
Atlanta, Ga.	104,553	34.6	Wilmington, N. C.	13,506	40.4
50,000 to 100,000			Petersburg, Va.	13,483	44.0
Houston, Tex.	86,302	22.4	Asheville, N. C.	13,435	26.2
Cleveland, O.	84,504	9.6	Jersey City, N. J.	13,416	4.5
Los Angeles, Calif.	63,774	4.2	Bessemer, Ala.	13,280	58.2
Pittsburgh, Pa.	62,216	9.3	Lexington, Ky.	12,925	26.2
Jacksonville, Fla.	61,782	35.7	Meridian, Miss.	12,853	36.2
Richmond, Va.	61,251	31.7	Roanoke, Va.	12,812	18.5
Cincinnati, O.	55,593	12.2	Vicksburg, Miss.	12,514	51.2
Indianapolis, Ind.	51,142	13.2	Camden, N. J.	12,478	10.6
Dallas, Tex.	50,407	17.1	Greenville, Miss.	12,347	59.1
25,000 to 50,000			Pensacola, Fla.	12,338	32.9
Nashville, Tenn.	47,318	28.3	Akron, O.	12,260	5.0
Louisville, Ky.	47,158	14.8	Omaha, Nebr.	12,015	5.4
Norfolk, Va.	45,893	31.8	St. Petersburg, Fla.	11,982	19.7
Newark, N. J.	45,760	10.6	Monroe, La.	11,887	42.0
Savannah, Ga.	43,237	45.0	Baton Rouge, La.	11,624	33.5
Kansas City, Mo.	41,574	10.4	Spartanburg, S. C.	11,405	35.4
Miami, Fla.	36,857	21.4	Alexandria, La.	11,331	41.9
Chattanooga, Tenn.	36,404	28.4	West Palm Beach, Fla.	11,319	33.6
Winston-Salem, N. C.	36,018	45.1	Waco, Tex.	11,025	19.7
Shreveport, La.	35,975	36.6	Selma, Ala.	10,958	55.2
Columbus, O.	35,765	11.7	Rocky Mount, N. C.	10,765	42.1
Montgomery, Ala.	34,535	44.2	Orlando, Fla.	10,470	28.5
Charleston, S. C.	31,765	44.6	Lynchburg, Va.	10,236	23.0
Charlotte, N. C.	31,403	31.1	Tuscaloosa, Ala.	10,178	37.0
Mobile, Ala.	29,046	36.9	Danville, Va.	10,168	31.0
Augusta, Ga.	27,004	41.0	Chester, Pa.	10,162	17.1
Macon, Ga.	25,604	44.2	5000 to 10,000		
Fort Worth, Tex.	25,254	14.2	Albany, Ga.	9,719	51.0
10,000 to 25,000			Wilson, N. C.	9,317	48.4
Jackson, Miss.	24,256	39.1	Trenton, N. J.	9,308	7.5
Boston, Mass.	23,679	3.1	Port Arthur, Tex.	9,060	19.6
Durham, N. C.	23,347	38.8	Milwaukee, Wis.	8,821	1.5
Tampa, Fla.	23,331	21.5	Jackson, Tenn.	8,785	36.1
Columbia, S. C.	22,195	35.6	Oakland, Calif.	8,462	2.8
Little Rock, Ark.	22,103	25.1	Lake Charles, La.	8,322	39.2
Kansas City, Kans.	21,033	17.3	Springfield, O.	8,293	11.7
Gary, Ind.	20,394	18.3	Laurel, Miss.	8,257	40.1
Dayton, O.	20,273	9.6	Marshall, Tex.	8,074	43.9
Oklahoma City, Okla.	19,334	9.5	Natchez, Miss.	8,001	52.3
Portsmouth, Va.	19,338	38.1	Annisson, Ala.	7,910	31.0
San Antonio, Tex.	19,235	7.6	Goldsboro, N. C.	7,889	45.7
Beaumont, Tex.	18,921	32.0	High Point, N. C.	7,872	20.4
Buffalo, N. Y.	17,694	3.1	Denver, Colo.	7,836	2.4
Columbus, Ga.	17,453	32.8	Hattiesburg, Miss.	7,767	36.9
East St. Louis, Ill.	16,798	22.2	Greenwood, Miss.	7,750	52.5
Greensboro, N. C.	16,343	27.6	Gadsden, Ala.	7,559	20.4
Knoxville, Tenn.	16,094	14.4	Valdosta, Ga.	7,469	47.9
			Dothan, Ala.	7,457	43.4
			Tyler, Tex.	7,391	26.1

NEGRO POPULATION OF URBAN PLACES, ETC., (Cont.)

		Percent of Total Popu- lation			Percent of Total Popu- lation
Urban Places			Urban Places		
5000 to 10,000 (Cont.)			2500 to 5000 (Cont.)		
Athens, Ga.	7,284	35.3	Paterson, N. J.	4,268	3.1
Harrisburg, Pa.	7,263	8.7	Phoenix, Ariz.	4,263	6.5
Hartford, Conn.	7,090	4.3	Decatur, Ala.	4,256	25.6
Charleston, W. Va.	7,011	10.3	New Iberia, La.	4,247	30.9
Pine Bluff, Ark.	7,002	32.9	Fort Smith, Ark.	4,201	11.5
Fayetteville, N. C.	6,947	39.9	Hot Springs, Ark.	4,182	19.6
Daytona Beach, Fla.	6,910	30.6	Greenwood, S. C.	4,153	31.9
Fairfield, Ala.	6,868	58.7	Charlottesville, Va.	4,152	21.4
Evansville, Ind.	6,862	7.1	Hopkinsville, Ky.	4,146	35.4
Montclair, N. J.	6,777	17.0	San Diego, Calif.	4,143	2.0
Sumter, S. C.	6,756	42.6	Longview, Tex.	4,141	30.1
Florence, S. C.	6,709	41.8	St. Paul, Minn.	4,139	1.4
Kinston, N. C.	6,706	43.6	Yonkers, N. Y.	4,108	2.9
Clarksdale, Miss.	6,672	54.8	Clarksville, Tenn.	4,044	34.2
Columbus, Miss.	6,599	48.4	Canton, O.	4,041	3.7
Flint, Mich.	6,599	4.4	Opelousas, La.	4,031	44.9
Muskogee, Okla.	6,596	20.4	Wichita Falls, Tex.	4,028	8.9
La Grange, Ga.	6,594	30.0	Opelika, Ala.	3,940	46.4
Tallahassee, Fla.	6,487	39.9	Pasadena, Calif.	3,929	4.8
Providence, R. I.	6,388	2.5	Paris, Tex.	3,924	21.0
Des Moines, Ia.	6,360	4.0	Camden, Ark.	3,897	43.4
North Little Rock, Ark.	6,272	29.7	Cordele, Ga.	3,873	48.8
New Haven, Conn.	6,235	3.9	Yazoo City, Miss.	3,868	53.3
New Rochelle, N. Y.	6,228	10.7	Henderson, N. C.	3,852	50.4
Thomasville, Ga.	6,221	49.0	Suffolk, Va.	3,837	33.8
Greenville, N. C.	6,194	48.9	Annapolis, Md.	3,792	29.0
Paducah, Ky.	6,191	18.3	Seattle, Wash.	3,789	1.0
East Chicago, Ind.	6,101	11.2	Bridgeport, Conn.	3,767	2.6
Brunswick, Ga.	6,080	40.4	Bryan, Tex.	3,756	31.7
Evanston, Ill.	6,026	9.2	Tallulah, La.	3,744	65.5
Anderson, S. C.	6,017	31.0	Reidsville, N. C.	3,732	35.9
East Orange, N. J.	5,950	8.6	Moultrie, Ga.	3,700	36.5
Waycross, Ga.	5,843	34.9	Canton, Miss.	3,696	61.5
New Bern, N. C.	5,839	49.4	Texarkana, Ark.	3,678	31.1
Wichita, Kans.	5,686	4.9	Okmulgee, Okla.	3,659	22.8
Topeka, Kans.	5,679	8.4	Bluefield, W. Va.	3,598	17.4
Lafayette, La.	5,636	29.3	Washington, N. C.	3,565	41.6
Orange, N. J.	5,620	15.7	South Bend, Ind.	3,555	3.5
Cairo, Ill.	5,494	38.1	Corsicana, Tex.	3,535	23.2
Rome, Ga.	5,379	20.8	Asbury Park, N. J.	3,513	24.0
Alexandria, Va.	5,281	15.8	Palestine, Tex.	3,500	28.8
Fort Lauderdale, Fla.	5,178	28.8	Milledgeville, Ga.	3,493	51.5
Texarkana, Tex.	5,127	30.1	Ocala, Fla.	3,483	38.8
Gainesville, Fla.	5,121	37.2	Palatka, Fla.	3,472	48.6
Mount Vernon, N. Y.	5,103	7.6	Aiken, S. C.	3,436	55.7
Sanford, Fla.	5,098	49.9	Troy, Ala.	3,417	48.4
Arlington County, Va.	5,032	8.8	Terre Haute, Ind.	3,398	5.4
Phenix City, Ala.	5,011	32.6	Berkeley, Calif.	3,395	4.0
2500 to 5000			Homestead, Pa.	3,385	17.8
Elizabeth, N. J.	4,941	4.5	Hamtramck, Mich.	3,363	6.7
Lakeland, Fla.	4,886	22.1	Gulfport, Miss.	3,362	22.1
Cambridge, Mass.	4,858	4.4	Springfield, Ill.	3,357	4.4
Americus, Ga.	4,855	52.3	Florence, Ala.	3,355	22.3
San Francisco, Calif.	4,846	0.8	Saginaw, Mich.	3,315	4.0
Orangeburg, S. C.	4,748	45.1	Decatur, Ga.	3,306	20.0
Salisbury, N. C.	4,712	24.8	Lower Merion, Pa.	3,271	8.3
Huntsville, Ala.	4,710	36.1	Rochester, N. Y.	3,262	1.0
Helena, Ark.	4,648	54.4	St. Augustine, Fla.	3,219	26.6
Minneapolis, Minn.	4,646	0.9	Tupelo, Miss.	3,217	39.2
Bogalusa, La.	4,610	31.6	Dublin, Ga.	3,213	41.1
Plainfield, N. J.	4,574	12.2	Rock Hill, S. C.	3,198	21.3
Corpus Christi, Tex.	4,545	7.9	Natchitoches, La.	3,183	46.7
Huntington, W. Va.	4,498	5.7	Covington, Ky.	3,154	5.1
El Dorado, Ark.	4,474	28.2	Shelby, N. C.	3,150	22.4
Elizabeth City, N. C.	4,465	38.6	Blytheville, Ark.	3,145	29.5
Griffin, Ga.	4,415	33.4	Springfield, Mass.	3,144	2.1
Gastonia, N. C.	4,374	20.5	White Plains, N. Y.	3,141	7.8
New Bedford, Mass.	4,297	3.9	Concord, N. C.	3,121	20.0
			Hackensack, N. J.	3,098	11.8

NEGRO POPULATION OF URBAN PLACES, ETC., (Cont.)

Urban Places	Percent of Total Population		Urban Places	Percent of Total Population	
	Negro Population	Total Population		Negro Population	Total Population
2500 to 5000 (Cont.)			2500 to 5000 (Cont.)		
Middletown, O.	3,055	9.8	Amarillo, Tex.	2,761	5.3
Pompano, Fla.	3,039	68.6	Grenada, Miss.	2,757	47.3
St. Joseph, Mo.	3,029	4.0	Inkster, Mich.	2,723	38.7
Hope, Ark.	3,028	40.5	Tarboro, N. C.	2,721	38.1
Marion, S. C.	3,007	52.3	Newnan, Ga.	2,720	37.9
Englewood, N. J.	2,999	15.8	Denison, Tex.	2,703	17.3
Aliquippa, Pa.	2,994	11.1	Johnson City, Tenn.	2,703	10.7
Fort Myers, Fla.	2,989	28.2	Fort Valley, Ga.	2,665	53.8
Muncie, Ind.	2,985	6.0	Greenville, Tex.	2,663	19.0
Talladega, Ala.	2,961	31.8	Norristown, Pa.	2,661	7.0
Alton, Ill.	2,943	9.4	Grand Rapids, Mich.	2,660	1.6
Columbia, Tenn.	2,937	27.8	Brookhaven, Miss.	2,646	42.5
Eufaula, Ala.	2,932	46.8	Henderson, Ky.	2,644	20.1
Albany, N. Y.	2,929	2.2	Danville, Ill.	2,636	7.1
Terrell, Tex.	2,906	27.7	Ardmore, Okla.	2,619	15.5
Ruston, La.	2,905	40.9	Bastrop, La.	2,609	39.4
Cambridge, Md.	2,892	28.6	Biloxi, Miss.	2,580	14.8
Darlington, S. C.	2,884	46.2	West Point, Miss.	2,572	45.7
Bainbridge, Ga.	2,869	45.2	Demopolis, Ala.	2,566	62.0
Pierce, Fla.	2,865	35.6	Marietta, Ga.	2,552	29.4
Minden, La.	2,861	42.8	District 1511, Center Hill (Fulton Co., Ga.)	2,547	21.0
Owensboro, Ky.	2,860	9.5	Newberry, S. C.	2,537	33.8
Prichard, Ala.	2,848	46.8	River Rouge, Mich.	2,536	14.9
Tuskegee, Ala.	2,844	72.2	Clearwater, Fla.	2,533	25.0
Peoria, Ill.	2,826	7.7	Bowling Green, Ky.	2,532	17.4
Steubenville, O.	2,814	7.5	Forrest City, Ark.	2,527	44.3
Dyersburg, Tenn.	2,810	28.0	Warren, O.	2,526	5.9
Sarasota, Fla.	2,802	25.2	Richmond, Ind.	2,523	7.2
Pontiac, Mich.	2,794	4.2	Camden, S. C.	2,522	43.9
Gretna, La.	2,793	25.7	Fort Wayne, Ind.	2,517	2.1
Panama City, Fla.	2,790	24.0	Steelton, Pa.	2,514	19.2
Temple, Tex.	2,788	18.2			

RACIAL COMPOSITION OF THE URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, BY REGIONS AND DIVISIONS: 1940

Negro Population

There were 6,253,588 Negroes in urban places in 1940 and 5,193,913 in urban places in 1930, an increase of 1,059,675 persons, or 20.4 percent. In rural-nonfarm areas, Negroes increased by 92,923, or 4.6 percent. In spite of the fact that the rate of natural increase is much larger for rural-farm Negroes than it is for urban Negroes, the number of Negroes on rural farms actually decreased by 178,223 persons, or 3.8 percent, between 1930 and 1940.

During the 1930's there was a continuation of the movement of Negroes from southern farms to both southern and northern cities. In 1940 there were 6,253,588 Negroes in urban areas—almost half of all Negroes. This number

represents a gain of about a fifth (20.4 percent) over 1930, whereas the Negro population on farms decreased 3.8 percent between 1930 and 1940. Despite the movement during the decade, Negroes constituted about one sixth of the rural-farm population as compared with less than one tenth of the population in urban and rural-nonfarm areas.

White Population

The white population increased numerically in each of the urban-rural parts of the United States between 1930 and 1940. The proportion of white persons in the rural-farm population of the United States increased from 83.6 percent to 84.3 percent and in the rural-nonfarm population from 90.9 percent

**POPULATION, NEGRO AND WHITE, FOR THE UNITED STATES,
URBAN AND RURAL, BY DIVISIONS: 1940**

Region and Division	TOTAL		URBAN	
	White	Negro	White	Negro
United States	118,214,870	12,865,518	67,972,823	6,253,588
REGIONS:				
The North	73,206,738	2,790,193	48,462,321	2,495,637
The South	31,658,578	9,904,619	11,659,245	3,616,118
The West	13,349,554	170,706	7,851,257	141,833
THE NORTH:				
New England	8,329,146	101,509	6,328,168	87,631
Middle Atlantic	26,237,622	1,268,366	19,974,775	1,146,580
East North Central	25,528,451	1,069,326	16,453,265	979,300
West North Central	13,111,519	350,992	5,706,113	282,126
THE SOUTH:				
South Atlantic	13,095,227	4,698,863	5,113,499	1,804,272
East South Central	7,993,755	2,780,635	2,271,610	893,102
West South Central	10,569,596	2,425,121	4,274,136	918,744
THE WEST:				
Mountain	3,978,913	36,411	1,738,288	25,904
Pacific	9,370,641	134,295	6,112,969	115,929
United States	RURAL-URBAN		RURAL-FARM	
	White	Negro	White	Negro
United States	24,778,585	2,109,630	25,463,462	4,502,300
REGIONS:				
The North	13,305,697	220,893	11,438,720	73,663
The South	8,142,225	1,866,909	11,857,108	4,421,592
The West	3,330,663	21,828	2,167,634	7,045
THE NORTH:				
New England	1,472,099	10,935	528,879	2,943
Middle Atlantic	4,528,317	105,554	1,734,530	16,232
East North Central	4,516,861	69,398	4,558,325	20,628
West North Central	2,788,420	35,006	4,616,986	33,860
THE SOUTH:				
South Atlantic	3,839,809	1,020,063	4,141,919	1,874,528
East South Central	1,911,527	431,886	3,810,618	1,455,647
West South Central	2,390,889	414,960	3,904,571	1,091,417
THE WEST:				
Mountain	1,226,707	8,139	1,013,918	2,368
Pacific	2,103,956	13,689	1,153,716	4,677

to 91.7 percent. In the urban population, however, the proportion of white persons decreased from 92.2 percent to 91.3 percent.

Regional Differences

Almost half of the southern Negroes were on rural farms in 1940, 44.6 percent as compared with 49.2 in 1930.

This was well over twice the proportion who were living in rural-nonfarm areas in the South. Few rural Negroes were living on farms in the North and the West.

In no urban-rural area outside of the West did the other nonwhite races constitute more than a fraction of one percent of the population of all races.

They did make up 6.6 percent of the population of the rural-farm West, 2.2 percent of the rural-nonfarm, and

1.7 percent of the urban. About four out of ten of the persons of other races in the West lived on farms.

AGE COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION

The median age of the population of the United States was 29.0 years on April 1, 1940, this representing an increase of 2.5 years since 1930.

Although males were slightly older, on the average, than females in 1940, the median ages being 29.1 and 29.0 years, respectively, the difference was somewhat less than in 1930.

The median age of the population of the several states ranged from 22.2 years in South Carolina to 33.0 years in California. (The median age is that age which divides the population into two equal groups, one half being older, and one half younger, than the median. It is ordinarily a year or two lower than the arithmetical average of the ages of the population.)

The advance in the median age of the population in 1940 as compared with that in 1930 results chiefly from an increase in the proportions of persons in the upper age groups and a decrease

in the proportions in the younger ages. Lower birth rates and lower death rates in the past decade have been major factors in bringing about these changes. Another factor has been the practical cessation of immigration from foreign countries, which has permitted the foreign-born population in the United States to grow older without replacement by new (and younger) immigrants.

Race, Nativity, and Sex

The foreign-born white population, with a median age of 51.0 years, was the oldest of the race-nativity groups. It was also the oldest group in 1930, as well as the group with the greatest increase in median age (7.1 years) since 1930. The next oldest group, the native whites, with a median age of 26.9 years in 1940, had a median 3.2 years higher in 1940 than in 1930. Only in the native white group were females

POPULATION BY AGE GROUPS AND RACES FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

Age .	Native White	Foreign-born White	Negro	Other Races
All ages	106,795,732	11,419,138	12,865,518	588,887
Under 5 years	9,221,184	8,321	1,249,080	62,939
5 to 9 years	9,307,367	21,584	1,294,546	61,125
10 to 14 years	10,298,944	53,751	1,330,660	62,580
15 to 19 years	10,799,262	164,785	1,304,606	64,870
20 to 24 years	10,130,640	209,509	1,195,227	52,459
25 to 29 years	9,479,994	424,276	1,145,284	47,084
30 to 34 years	8,497,387	709,091	992,879	43,031
35 to 39 years	7,468,265	1,048,395	985,833	42,884
40 to 44 years	6,673,013	1,263,070	815,096	36,664
45 to 49 years	6,028,851	1,503,905	692,807	29,662
50 to 54 years	5,114,739	1,565,568	550,435	26,104
55 to 59 years	4,108,095	1,318,750	397,219	19,801
60 to 64 years	3,347,818	1,068,875	295,904	15,743
65 to 69 years	2,686,518	812,528	296,737	10,874
70 to 74 years	1,798,386	602,159	162,948	6,039
75 years and over	1,835,269	644,571	156,257	7,028
Under 1 year	1,777,737	495	229,799	12,142

older, on the average, than males, the median age being 26.7 years for native white males and 27.1 years for native white females.

For the total Negro population, as well as for males and females separately, the median age was 25.3 years in 1940. For Negroes as a whole, this represents an increase in median age of 1.8 years during the decade.

Persons of other races were not only

on the average the youngest group in the country in 1940, with a median age of 24.1 years; but they were also the people with the least increase in median age (0.8 years) between 1930 and 1940. The group designated "Other Races" is a rather heterogeneous one, including American Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos, and small numbers of other people.

INSTITUTIONAL POPULATION: 1940

There were 591,365 patients 14 years old and over in mental institutions on April 1, 1940. Persons in homes for the aged, infirm, or needy numbered 245,026; inmates of prisons and reformatories, 217,919; and inmates of local jails and workhouses, 99,249. One out of every 100 persons 14 years old and over in the United States was an inmate of one of these types of institutions.

Approximately 47 percent of the inmates were living in rural-nonfarm areas, 42 percent in urban areas, and 11 percent on rural farms. Of all inmates, 70 percent were native whites, 16 percent were foreign-born whites, and 14 percent were nonwhites.¹

Statistics from the 1940 census show that 168,903 or 1.7 percent of the total number of nonwhite persons 14 years old and over were inmates of public and private institutions established in order to care for (1) prisoners or delinquents, (2) persons committed to jails or workhouses, (3) mental patients, and (4) aged, infirm, orphaned, or needy persons.

Approximately two fifths (38.4 percent) of the total number of nonwhite persons in institutions were inmates of prisons or reformatories, including training schools for youthful offenders and other penal institutions under federal or state control. Nonwhite persons

in prisons or reformatories were 29.8 percent of all inmates in such institutions.

About one third or 33.5 percent of the persons in jails and workhouses were nonwhite persons. This proportion was larger than the corresponding proportion for nonwhite persons in prisons and reformatories. Nonwhite inmates of local jails and workhouses, however, constituted a smaller proportion of the total number of nonwhites in institutions of all types than nonwhite inmates in prisons or reformatories.

The proportions of all inmates of prisons or reformatories, and local jails or workhouses, who were nonwhite are much larger than the proportion for nonwhite persons in the total population 14 years old and over, but it is hardly possible to base any conclusions relative to the comparative criminal behavior of white persons and nonwhite persons on this fact alone.

Of the total number (591,365) of inmates 14 years old and over in mental institutions, 54,736 or 9.3 percent were nonwhite persons. Nonwhite inmates in homes for aged, infirm, or needy persons constituted a comparatively small proportion (8.0 percent) of the institutionalized nonwhite population and an even smaller proportion (5.5 percent) of the total number of all inmates in homes for the aged, infirm, or needy. It is probable that the latter proportion reflects the care given infirm, needy, or aged persons by their

¹ Nonwhites include Negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and other racial groups of darker color. Mexicans are classified as white. Negroes constitute about 95 percent of the nonwhites.

respective families, the benefit which aged and needy persons have derived from federal and state public assistance programs, and the tendency of aged nonwhite persons to remain in the labor force longer than white persons.

There are 2547 nonwhite inmates in institutions classified under the heading "Other and not reported." These institutions include those combining the usual functions of two or more of the four specific types with no clear majority of inmates classifiable under one type, and a few institutions with in-

sufficient information reported to determine the specific type.

The proportion of males who were nonwhite in each type of institution was in general much higher than the corresponding proportion for nonwhite females. About nine out of every ten nonwhite inmates in prisons or reformatories and local jails or workhouses were males, whereas, in homes for aged, infirm, or needy persons and institutions classified under the heading of "Other and not reported," there were approximately two nonwhite males to each nonwhite female.

**INSTITUTIONAL POPULATION 14 YEARS AND OVER, BY TYPE OF
INSTITUTION, COLOR, AND NATIVITY, FOR THE
UNITED STATES: 1940**

Color and Nativity	Institutional Population	Prison or Reformatory	Local Jail or Workhouse	Mental Institutions	Home for Aged, Infirm or Needy
Total, 14 and over	1,176,993	217,919	99,249	591,365	245,026
White	1,008,090	152,994	66,042	536,629	231,538
Native	825,868	142,909	59,696	428,912	176,229
Foreign born	182,222	10,085	6,346	107,717	55,309
Nonwhite	168,903	64,925	33,207	54,736	13,488
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	85.6	70.2	66.5	90.7	94.5
Native	70.2	65.6	60.1	72.5	71.9
Foreign born	15.5	4.6	6.4	18.2	22.6
Nonwhite	14.4	29.8	33.5	9.3	5.5

**NEGRO POPULATION OF VOTING AGE IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY REGIONS AND
STATES: 1940 AND 1930**

In 1940 Negroes constituted 8.8 percent of the nation's total population of voting age. Between 1930 and 1940 the proportion of Negroes in the total population of voting age declined 0.1 percent, but the total number of Negroes of voting age increased from 6,531,939 to 7,427,938 or 13.7 percent.

The decline in the proportion of Negroes among persons of voting age is accounted for by the fact that Negroes 21 years old and over increased less rapidly than the white population of corresponding ages.

**Population of Voting Age for Foreign-
Born White Persons, Negroes, and
Other Nonwhite Persons, for the
United States: 1940**

Race and Citizenship	Total Population (All Ages)	Population 21 Years Old and Over
Foreign-born		
white	*11,419,138	*11,123,950
Citizen	7,250,252	7,130,158
Alien	3,343,814	3,205,457
Negro	*12,865,518	*7,427,938
Citizen	12,811,590	7,375,609
Alien	44,021	42,878
Other nonwhite		
races	588,887	325,155
Citizen	497,070	238,098
Alien	91,817	87,057

* Includes persons for whom citizenship was not reported.

Foreign-Born Negro Population for Selected States and Cities: 1940

(For a state or urban-rural part thereof, figures are presented where the foreign-born Negro population amounted to as much as 2000. For a city of 100,000 or more, figures are presented where the foreign-born Negro population amounted to as much as 1000.)

Area	Number
Florida	7,779
Urban	6,280
Massachusetts	7,547
Urban	5,995
Michigan	2,190
Urban	2,008
New Jersey	2,628
Urban	2,358
New York	51,286
Urban	50,265
Pennsylvania	2,339
Urban	2,182
Cities	
Boston, Mass.	2,669
Detroit, Mich.	1,437
Miami, Fla.	4,063
New Bedford, Mass.	1,142
New York, N.Y.	48,418
Bronx Borough	2,538
Brooklyn Borough	9,276
Manhattan Borough ...	34,600
Queens Borough	1,864
Philadelphia	1,647

In the foreign-born white population, which includes a number of large national groups such as Germans, Italians, and Russians, there were more persons 21 years old and over than there were Negroes of corresponding ages. However, since there are few aliens among Negroes, the number of Negro citizens of voting age exceeded the number of naturalized foreign-born whites.

Citizenship

There were 52,329 aliens and persons for whom citizenship was not reported in the Negro population of voting age in 1940 and 68,109 persons in the same categories in 1930. Neither of these figures represents more than 1.0 percent of the respective totals for

the Negro population 21 years old and over.

In both 1940 and 1930 the states of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, and Rhode Island had relatively large proportions of aliens and persons for whom citizenship was not reported in their Negro population of voting age, but none of these states except New York had a large Negro population.

In the state of New York Negro aliens, together with Negroes for whom citizenship was not reported, totaled 31,501 or 8.0 percent of the total Negro population 21 years old and over in 1940 and 40,887 or 41.2 percent in 1930.

Proportions

The Negro population of the United States and of each of its areas had larger proportions of persons of voting age in 1940 than in 1930. For the United States the proportions were 57.7 percent in 1940 and 54.9 percent in 1930, the increase being more pronounced in rural-farm areas than elsewhere.

Distribution

When the 1940 census was taken 4,080,438 or 54.9 percent of the total Negro population of voting age were in urban areas. This percent was 3.8 percent larger than the percent for 1930.

Negroes of voting age numbered 1,218,810 in rural-nonfarm areas, and 2,128,690 in rural-farm areas in 1940, but neither of these areas had as large a proportion of the Negro population of voting age in 1940 as in 1930.

In rural-nonfarm areas, which had 17.2 percent of the Negro population of voting age in 1930, the decline was only 0.8 percent. The decline was more marked in rural-farm areas, however, which included 31.8 percent of the Negro population of voting age in 1930 and 28.7 percent in 1940.

According to the 1940 census 1,847,162 Negroes in the North, 5,457,239 in the South, and 123,537 in the West

**NEGRO POPULATION OF VOTING AGE BY STATES,
FOR UNITED STATES: 1940**

	Total Negro Population 21 Years Old and Over	Citizen	Alien	Citizenship Not Reported
United States	7,427,938	7,375,609	42,878	9,451
NEW ENGLAND:				
Maine	828	755	58	15
New Hampshire	283	271	9	3
Vermont	244	240	—	4
Massachusetts	35,615	30,661	4,227	727
Rhode Island	6,514	5,830	611	73
Connecticut	20,704	19,977	554	173
MIDDLE ATLANTIC:				
New York	393,056	361,555	27,061	4,440
New Jersey	143,661	142,156	983	522
Pennsylvania	299,998	298,756	753	489
EAST NORTH CENTRAL:				
Ohio	220,164	219,672	267	225
Indiana	80,451	80,360	40	51
Illinois	263,426	262,856	338	232
Michigan	138,116	137,138	689	289
Wisconsin	8,123	8,101	18	4
WEST NORTH CENTRAL:				
Minnesota	7,173	7,150	9	14
Iowa	11,062	11,044	6	12
Missouri	164,605	164,494	41	70
North Dakota	157	157	—	—
South Dakota	320	320	—	—
Nebraska	9,657	9,636	14	7
Kansas	43,005	42,960	11	34
SOUTH ATLANTIC:				
Delaware	22,893	22,863	11	19
Maryland	183	183,320	188	208
District of Columbia	127,100	126,850	147	103
Virginia	364,411	364,224	74	113
West Virginia	70,094	70,048	21	25
North Carolina	493,175	493,108	20	47
South Carolina	383,686	383,660	11	15
Georgia	580,751	580,687	23	41
Florida	316,640	310,228	5,545	867
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL:				
Kentucky	138,001	137,961	9	31
Tennessee	309,456	309,400	25	31
Alabama	521,080	520,981	57	42
Mississippi	563,754	563,715	17	22
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL:				
Arkansas	270,995	270,973	8	14*
Louisiana	473,562	473,332	147	83
Oklahoma	97,137	97,089	7	41
Texas	540,788	540,565	138	85

**NEGRO POPULATION OF VOTING AGE BY STATES,
FOR UNITED STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

	Total Negro Population 21 Years Old and Over	Citizen	Alien	Citizenship Not Reported
MOUNTAIN:				
Montana	843	831	7	5
Idaho	465	460	3	2
Wyoming	692	691	1	—
Colorado	8,788	8,766	10	12
New Mexico	3,156	3,152	1	3
Arizona	10,092	10,042	40	10
Utah	909	904	2	3
Nevada	547	538	4	5
PACIFIC:				
Washington	5,710	5,645	44	21
Oregon	1,928	1,903	12	13
California	90,407	89,584	617	206

**NEGRO POPULATION OF VOTING AGE FOR CITIES WITH 50,000
OR MORE NEGRO INHABITANTS: 1940**

(Cities arranged in order of rank according to number of Negro inhabitants)

CITY	Total Negro Population 21 Years Old and Over	Citizen	Alien	Citizenship Not Reported
Total	1,784,515	1,751,148	28,159	5,208
New York, N.Y.....	317,355	287,528	25,885	3,942
Chicago, Ill.	191,718	191,242	292	184
Philadelphia, Pa.	163,441	162,574	552	315
Washington, D.C.	127,100	126,850	147	103
Baltimore, Md.	106,806	106,472	168	166
Detroit, Mich.	99,870	99,212	498	160
New Orleans, La.....	94,557	94,397	118	42
Memphis, Tenn.	83,085	83,070	10	5
Birmingham, Ala.	68,360	68,349	5	6
St. Louis, Mo.	75,150	75,085	27	38
Atlanta, Ga.	67,932	67,917	5	10
Houston, Tex.	59,363	59,352	10	1
Cleveland, O.	55,946	55,742	139	65
Los Angeles, Calif.....	47,086	46,835	184	67
Pittsburgh, Pa.	40,666	40,570	57	39
Jacksonville, Fla.	40,474	40,432	29	13
Richmond, Va.	39,489	39,467	10	12
Cincinnati, O.	37,256	37,227	14	15
Indianapolis, Ind.	34,413	34,387	7	19
Dallas, Tex.	34,448	34,440	2	6

were of voting age. In the 1930's the proportions of Negroes of voting age living in the North and West increased while the corresponding proportions for the South declined.

The changes were minor, however, and in 1940, as in 1930, almost one fourth of the total number of Negroes 21 years old and over were in the

North; approximately three fourths were in the South, and only a little more than 1.0 percent were in the West.

Each of the following states had 4.0 percent or more of the Negro population of voting age in 1940 and 1930: Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, New York, North Carolina,

Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

Sex Proportion

In 1940 and 1930 a little more than half of the total number of Negroes of voting age in the United States and its urban areas were women. This fact, however, does not indicate that the number of women exercising the voting franchise was larger than the number of men. It is believed that voting in the female population is less common than voting in the male population.

Rates of Increase

Negroes of voting age increased 895,999 or 13.7 percent between 1930 and 1940. They increased in both urban and rural areas, but the increase for the urban Negro population of voting age was 22.3 percent while the increases for the rural-nonfarm and rural-farm Negro population of voting age were much lower, being 8.6 percent and 2.6 percent, respectively.

The increase between 1930 and 1940 for Negro males 21 years old and over in the United States was 11.2 percent

and that for Negro females in the same category 16.2 percent. The increase for females was greater than that for males in urban and rural-nonfarm areas and in each region.

In the urban areas the percentages of increase were 17.8 for males and 26.5 for females. The corresponding percentages for the rural-nonfarm areas were 5.5 and 11.9, while those for the rural-farm areas were 4.2 and 1.0.

Large Cities

The proportion of Negroes who are of voting age is larger in urban areas and especially in cities of 50,000 or more Negroes than the corresponding proportions of Negroes in rural-nonfarm and rural-farm areas.

In 1940, 1,784,515 Negroes or 24.0 percent of the total number of Negroes of voting age resided in cities which had 50,000 or more Negro inhabitants. The total number of Negroes 21 years old and over residing in these cities increased 24.2 percent between 1930 and 1940, or at a rate higher than that for the total Negro population 21 years old and over in the United States.

SIGNIFICANT FACTS CONCERNING THE NEGRO POPULATION FROM 1870 TO 1940

(Prepared by Dr. Joseph R. Houchins, Specialist in Negro Statistics,
Bureau of the Census)

Population Growth

According to figures presented in the following table, the number of Negroes in the United States increased from 5,392,172 in 1870, to 12,865,518 in 1940, or 139 percent during 70 years.

This gain represents for the most part natural increase or, in other words, the excess of births over deaths. Immigration has contributed much to the growth of the white population of the United States, but in regard to the Negro population it has played only a negligible part. In fact, at no time during the period since 1870 has the number of foreign-born Negroes in the United States exceeded 100,000.

Birth and Death Rates

The large decline which has occurred in the Negro birth rate during the past 70 years is indicated by the data for children under 5 years of age per 1000 females 15 to 44 years old.

The number of children under 5 years of age per 1000 females decreased from 692 in 1870 to 368 in 1940.

The decrease in the Negro birth rate has not resulted in a corresponding decrease in the Negro population. Explanation of this fact is found in the decline in the Negro death rate which, in the course of 50 years, decreased from 32.4 to 13.9 per 1000 of the population, or 57.1 percent. The decrease in

the death rate for Negro infants under one year old was from 180.6 per 1000 live births in 1915 to 74.1 in 1941.

Improvements in Negro death rates are reflected in the Negro's longer span of life. For example, between 1900 and 1940 the complete expectation of life for Negro males increased from 32.5 years to 52.1 years and that for Negro females increased from 35.0 years to 55.0 years.

Illiteracy and School Attendance

There has been a continuous decrease in the number of Negroes unable to read and write. In 1870, 81.4 percent of all Negroes 10 years old and over were illiterate, but by 1900 less than half were in that category and by 1930 (the last year for which data on illiteracy were obtained) only one out of every eight Negroes could not read and write.

It should be pointed out that every census since 1900 has revealed an appreciable gain in the proportion of Negro children in school.

In 1940 the median number of school years completed by Negroes 25 years old and over from whom reports were received was only 5.7 years. Nevertheless, that segment of the Negro population included more than 80,000 persons who had completed four or more years of college.

Agricultural and Nonagricultural Pursuits

The percentage of all workers engaged in agriculture has steadily declined since 1870. For a number of decades Negroes lagged behind in this movement away from the farms, but between 1910 and 1920 Negro workers moved to the cities in large numbers, and as a result the proportion of Negroes engaged in agriculture decreased from 54.6 percent of all gainfully occupied to 44.2 percent.

After 1920 further reductions occurred in the number of Negro agricultural workers. Hence, in 1930

Negroes employed in agriculture represented only 36.1 percent of all Negro gainfully occupied workers and in 1940 about two thirds of the Negroes who were employed on other than public emergency work were engaged in nonagricultural pursuits.

The Professions and Selected Proprietary and Supervisory Pursuits

In 1940 there were about 110,000 Negroes in the various professions, as compared with approximately 34,000 in 1890. Professions in which the number of Negroes has increased include the ministry, teaching, medicine, dentistry, nursing, law, and social welfare.

In addition to the number of Negroes following these and other professions in 1940, there were 48,154 Negro men and women proprietors, managers, and officials in industries other than agriculture and a large number of Negroes who owned farms (174,-010).

Of the total number of Negro proprietors, managers, and officials in industries other than agriculture, retail and wholesale trade accounted for 32,274.

The number of retail stores with Negro proprietors increased from 22,756 in 1935 to 29,827 in 1939, or more than 30 percent, while the sales of such enterprises increased from \$47,-968,000 to \$71,466,000, or 49 percent.

Negroes also control and supervise a number of larger businesses. Thus, 21 Negro-owned and operated legal reserve life and assessment companies¹ with a combined premium income of over \$16,000,000 in 1941 had total assets of more than \$26,000,000 and nearly \$345,000,000 of insurance in force. Of the 210 Negro newspapers published in 1940, 117 had a combined circulation of 1,123,000.²

In 1940 more than one fourth (25.5

¹ See later statistics in section on business.

² See later statistics in section on newspapers and periodicals.

percent) of the farms of Negro operators were owned by their operators, a proportion which exceeded that noted at the three previous decennial censuses.

For 1940 the value of land and buildings of farms of Negro owners and the value of implements and machinery on such farms represented 30.1 percent and 39.0 percent of the respective totals for all Negro farms.

Home Ownership

The proportion of dwelling units occupied by Negro owner-occupants in 1940 (22.8 percent), although it declined slightly between 1930 and 1940, was well above that of 1890 (18.7 percent).

Included in the number of homes occupied by Negro owner-occupants in 1940 were 333,467 in urban areas, 186,096 in rural-nonfarm areas, and 200,208 in rural-farm areas. Data showing the total value of Negro owner-occupied dwelling units are not available, but the value (\$818,756,150) reported for 738,956 dwelling units occupied by non-white owner-occupants indicates that the homes of Negro owner-occupants represent a considerable sum.

COUNTIES IN WHICH NEGROES CONSTITUTED 50 PERCENT OR MORE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION: 1900 TO 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

There were 180 counties in the United States in 1940 in which Negroes constituted 50 percent or more of the total population as compared with 286 counties of this type in 1900.

In accounting for the decrease of 106 in the number of "majority Negro counties" (as these counties may be termed for convenience) between 1900 and 1940, emphasis should be placed on Negro migration, for the Negro residents of these counties have had a comparatively high birth rate and practically all of the changes made in the boundaries of these counties have been of a minor character.

Negro Population of the United States: 1870 to 1940

Year	Negro population
1940	12,865,518
1930	11,891,143
1920	10,463,131
1910	9,827,763
1900	8,833,994
1890	*7,760,000
1880	6,580,793
1870	*5,392,172

* Adjusted for underenumeration.

Churches

Membership in churches increased 24.7 percent between 1906 and 1916, 13.1 percent between 1916 and 1926, and 8.8 percent between 1926 and 1936. During the 30-year period the average membership of Negro churches increased 46.4 percent.³

Negroes have invested large sums in church edifices. Even in 1906 the amount invested in 34,648 Negro church edifices totaled \$56,636,159, but in 1936 the total value reported for approximately the same number of structures was \$164,531,531, or nearly 3 times the value reported in 1906.

Number and Proportion of Counties

Although there has been a considerable decline in the number of majority Negro counties, the number of states in which they were found in 1940 includes all the states which had such counties in 1900 except Maryland.

Of the total number of majority Negro counties in 1940, Georgia had 46; Mississippi, 35; South Carolina, 22; Alabama and Virginia, 18 each; Louisiana, 15; Arkansas and North Carolina, 9 each; Florida and Texas, 3 each; and Tennessee, 2 (table 1).

³ See later statistics in section on religious denominations.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF COUNTIES IN WHICH NEGROES CONSTITUTED 50 PERCENT OR MORE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION, BY STATES: 1900 TO 1940

STATE	1940	1930	1920	1910	1900
Total	180	191	221	264	286
Alabama	18	18	18	21	22
Arkansas	9	9	11	14	15
Florida	3	4	5	10	12
Georgia	46	48	58	66	67
Louisiana ..	15	16	22	25	31
Maryland	—	—	—	1	2
Mississippi	35	35	34	38	38
North Carolina	9	9	12	14	18
South Carolina	22	25	32	33	30
Tennessee	2	2	2	2	3
Texas	3	4	4	8	12
Virginia	18	21	23	32	36

These states comprised 1109 counties of which nearly one sixth (16.2 percent) had 50 percent or more of Negroes in their population. In the states of Mississippi and South Carolina, majority Negro counties represented 42.7 percent and 47.8 percent, respectively, of the total number of counties.

Counties of this type also represented 28.9 percent of the counties in Georgia, 26.9 percent of the counties in Alabama, 23.4 percent of the parishes in Louisiana, 18.0 percent of the counties in Virginia, and 12.0 percent of the counties in Arkansas.

Negro Population of Counties

Of the total Negro population of the United States, the 286 majority Negro counties in 1900 included 4,057,619, or 45.9 percent; the 264 majority Negro counties in 1910, 3,932,484, or 40.0 percent; the 221 majority Negro counties in 1920, 3,251,440, or 31.1 percent; the 191 majority Negro counties in 1930, 2,738,432, or 23.0 percent; and the 180 majority Negro counties in 1940, 2,642,808, or 20.5 percent.

Between 1930 and 1940 the number of Negroes in 177 identical majority Negro counties, that is, counties in which the Negro population constituted 50 percent or more of the total population in both 1940 and 1930, increased from 2,541,543 to 2,602,000, or 2.4 percent (table 2).

This rate of growth is remarkably low as compared with that for the Negro population of the South as a whole (5.8 percent), and reflects the fact that the Negro population of 87 of these counties (37 of which are in the state of Georgia) declined during the decade.

In 48 counties, however, the rate of growth of Negroes exceeded that of the total Negro population of the South, and in 37 counties of this group the rate of growth of the Negro population was also higher than that of the Negro population of the United States as a whole (8.2 percent).

Proportions of Negroes

Twenty and five tenths percent of the total Negro population of the United States resided in majority Negro counties in 1940. In 85 counties the proportion of Negroes was less than 60.0 percent. The number of counties having larger proportions of Negroes includes 54 in which Negroes comprised from 60.0 to 69.8 percent of the population, 36 in which the percentage Negro ranged from 70.2 to 79.4, and 5 in which the percentage Negro was between 80.9 and 85.5 percent.

The counties in the last classification comprise Greene, Lowndes, and Macon in Alabama, and Issaquena and Tunica in Mississippi. The proportion Negro (85.5 percent) in the last-named county

**TABLE 2.—NEGRO POPULATION OF COUNTIES IN WHICH NEGROES
CONSTITUTED 50 PERCENT OR MORE OF THE TOTAL POPULA-
TION BOTH IN 1940 AND IN 1930, BY STATES**

[A minus sign (—) denotes decrease]

STATE	Number of Counties	Negro Population		Percent of Increase
		1940	1930	
Total	177	2,602,000	2,541,543	2.4
Alabama	18	389,068	380,863	2.2
Arkansas	9	193,308	188,282	2.7
Florida	3	41,616	39,875	4.4
Georgia	46	350,991	365,234	— 3.9
Louisiana	14	176,737	165,815	6.6
Mississippi	34	729,713	690,476	5.7
North Carolina	8	137,984	134,345	2.7
South Carolina	22	360,981	353,555	2.1
Tennessee	2	39,543	38,322	3.2
Texas	3	41,050	40,982	0.2
Virginia	18	141,009	143,794	— 1.9

was larger than that in any other county in the United States.

Urban and Rural Negro Population

Urban areas accounted for 330,476 (12.5 percent) of the total Negro population of predominantly Negro counties in 1940, rural-nonfarm areas for 360,328 (13.6 percent), and rural-farm areas for 1,952,004 (73.9 percent).

There were no urban places in 95, or 52.8 percent, of the majority Negro counties. In the 85 counties in which urban places were found, the Negro urban population represented from 0.7 to 62.6 percent of the total Negro population. In 3 counties, namely Gougherty, Ga., Montgomery, Ala., and Warren, Miss., the number of Negroes

residing in urban areas exceeded the number in rural areas.

In 25 of the counties having urban areas, Negroes residing in rural-nonfarm areas outnumbered Negroes residing in urban areas and 4 counties, Camden and McIntosh counties, Ga., and Charles City and Nansemond counties, Va., had more Negroes in rural-nonfarm areas than in rural-farm areas.

Rural-farm areas had between 50.2 and 69.9 percent of the Negro population of 35 counties, between 80.0 and 89.8 percent of the Negro population of 60 counties, and between 90.2 and 96.4 percent of the Negro population of 17 counties.

INTERNAL MIGRATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1935 TO 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

An indication of the mobility of the American people is given by the fact that even in the prewar years, 1935 to 1940, one eighth of the population migrated at least from one county (or quasi county) to another within the United States. An analysis of 1940 census statistics shows that 12.0 percent of the 1940 population were migrants from one county (or quasi

county) to another between 1935 and 1940, 0.3 percent were immigrants from outside continental United States, and 86.9 percent were nonmigrants.

In the migration classification, a city of 100,000 inhabitants or more is treated as a quasi county and the remainder of its county as another. Thus, migrants comprise: (a) those living in different counties within the United

States in 1940 and 1935; (b) those living in a city of 100,000 or more in 1940 but living elsewhere in the same county in 1935; and (c) those living in a city of 100,000 or more in 1935 but living elsewhere in the same county in 1940.

Nonmigrants are those persons who lived in the same county (or quasi county) in 1940 as in 1935. Obviously, no place of residence in 1935 could be reported for persons under five years old in 1940; consequently, these young children are included with the nonmigrants.

Immigrants, as the term is used here, are persons living in continental United States in 1940 who reported that their place of residence in 1935 was in an outlying territory or possession of the United States or in a foreign country. These persons are distinguished from migrants, who are persons who moved from one place to another within continental United States. The term "immigrants" includes citizens of the United States as well as aliens.

Rural-nonfarm areas had the largest proportion of migrants, with 16.5 percent, as compared with 11.1 percent in urban areas. Migrants composed only 8.4 percent of the population in cities of 100,000 or more, whereas this percentage for all other urban areas was

13.8. Only in cities of 100,000 or more did immigrants comprise as much as one half of one percent of the total population.

"Type of migration" has been used to denote a classification of migrants into three categories based on the geographic relationship of the state of residence in 1935 and the state of residence in 1940. These three categories are: (a) migrants within a state, (b) migrants between contiguous states, and (c) migrants between noncontiguous states. This classification by type of migration is designed in part as a rough indication of the distance traveled in the process of migration.

The category "migrants within a state" comprises migrants who moved from one county (or quasi county) to another within the same state.

Among the whites 12.3 percent were migrants, and among the nonwhites 8.5 percent. For white migrants the sex ratio rises rapidly with increasing distance traveled in the process of migration.

Among white migrants within a state the sex ratio was 100.4, whereas there were 111.8 white males per 100 white females who migrated between noncontiguous states, and 110.9 white male immigrants per 100 white female immigrants. Nonwhite migrants within a

MIGRATION STATUS OF THE POPULATION AND TYPE OF MIGRATION, BY COLOR AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

(Note: See text for explanation of table)

Migrants by Type of Migration

Color and Sex	Total Population	Non- Migrants	Total	Within State	Between Contiguous States	Between Noncon- tiguous States	Immigrants	
							(from Pos- sessions or Foreign Countries)	Migration Status Not Reported
All classes..	131,669,275	114,438,296	15,734,798	9,239,749	3,142,257	3,352,792	359,499	1,186,682
Male	66,081,592	57,346,205	7,995,097	4,643,208	1,592,021	1,759,868	190,989	629,301
Female ...	65,607,683	57,192,091	7,739,701	4,596,541	1,550,236	1,592,924	168,510	507,381
White	118,214,870	102,283,836	14,592,878	8,565,730	2,906,127	3,127,021	344,272	993,884
Male	59,448,548	51,305,231	7,413,320	4,291,257	1,471,197	1,650,866	181,069	548,958
Female ...	58,766,322	50,978,605	7,179,558	4,274,473	1,428,930	1,476,155	163,203	444,926
Nonwhite ..	13,454,405	12,154,460	1,141,920	674,019	242,130	225,771	15,227	142,798
Male	6,613,044	5,940,974	581,777	351,951	126,824	109,002	9,920	80,373
Female ...	6,841,361	6,213,486	560,143	322,068	121,306	116,769	5,307	62,425
<i>Males per</i>								
<i>100 Females</i>								
All classes..	100.7	100.1	102.3	101.0	102.7	110.5	113.3	124.0
White	101.3	100.6	103.3	100.4	103.0	111.8	116.9	125.4
Nonwhite ..	96.7	95.6	103.9	109.3	99.6	93.3	106.9	128.8

**WHITE AND NONWHITE IN-MIGRANTS, OUT-MIGRANTS,
AND NET MIGRATION, FOR STATES: 1940**

[In-migrants are classified by state of residence in 1940; out-migrants by state of residence in 1935. A minus sign (—) denotes net out-migration.]

STATE	In-Migrants	White Out-Migrants	Net Migration	In-Migrants	Nonwhite Out-Migrants	Net Migration
NEW ENGLAND:						
Maine	26,359	35,010	—8,651	158	134	+24
New Hampshire	34,021	27,902	+6,119	93	94	—1
Vermont	18,922	24,614	—5,692	43	82	—39
Massachusetts	107,796	140,305	—32,509	2,343	2,076	+267
Rhode Island	28,652	28,203	+449	404	442	—38
Connecticut	84,819	61,703	+23,116	3,186	1,417	+1,769
MIDDLE ATLANTIC:						
New York	320,262	402,847	—82,585	40,136	14,701	+25,435
New Jersey	180,332	155,688	+24,644	12,776	8,039	+4,737
Pennsylvania	187,885	298,750	—110,865	19,267	12,075	+7,192
EAST NORTH CENTRAL:						
Ohio	224,131	242,412	—18,281	18,052	9,522	+8,530
Indiana	162,712	140,837	+21,875	8,323	3,916	+4,407
Illinois	311,097	339,436	—28,339	21,935	12,651	+9,284
Michigan	210,784	150,958	+59,826	20,787	4,607	+16,180
Wisconsin	87,973	120,574	—32,601	1,679	854	+825
WEST NORTH CENTRAL:						
Minnesota	115,316	133,557	—18,241	1,165	868	+297
Iowa	104,705	165,380	—60,675	1,112	1,320	—208
Missouri	181,164	270,570	—88,406	15,724	12,807	+2,917
North Dakota	19,915	86,206	—66,291	303	493	—190
South Dakota	27,029	88,140	—61,111	673	774	—101
Nebraska	57,093	163,620	—106,527	1,512	1,633	—121
Kansas	96,624	207,453	—110,829	4,829	5,050	—221
SOUTH ATLANTIC:						
Delaware	21,012	11,812	+9,200	2,439	1,314	+1,125
Maryland	122,888	67,848	+55,040	14,094	7,816	+6,278
Dist. of Columbia	104,586	89,502	+15,084	16,620	9,217	+7,403
Virginia	151,533	102,668	+48,865	19,865	24,780	—4,915
West Virginia	62,218	90,090	—27,872	6,496	5,866	+630
North Carolina	85,344	90,387	—5,043	19,847	29,744	—9,897
South Carolina	56,160	47,984	—8,176	9,456	33,619	—24,163
Georgia	107,544	109,988	—2,444	17,590	48,391	—30,801
Florida	210,139	87,672	+122,467	38,122	13,740	+24,382
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL:						
Kentucky	85,665	139,417	—53,752	8,257	9,318	—1,061
Tennessee	102,159	139,045	—36,886	20,541	22,405	—1,864
Alabama	64,220	110,818	—46,598	10,142	36,522	—26,380
Mississippi	49,564	60,090	—10,526	16,280	34,184	—17,904
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL:						
Arkansas	87,341	153,087	—65,746	16,331	26,048	—9,717
Louisiana	83,829	67,032	+16,797	13,357	21,516	—8,159
Oklahoma	118,630	295,115	—176,485	6,394	13,808	—7,414
Texas	247,500	263,478	—15,978	15,534	19,687	—4,153

**WHITE AND NONWHITE IN-MIGRANTS, OUT-MIGRANTS,
AND NET MIGRATION, FOR STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

STATE	White			Nonwhite		
	In-Migrants	Out-Migrants	Net Migration	In-Migrants	Out-Migrants	Net Migration
MOUNTAIN:						
Montana	45,128	56,258	-11,130	635	634	+1
Idaho	73,377	56,850	+16,527	407	558	-151
Wyoming	38,276	35,523	+2,753	323	335	-12
Colorado	117,585	108,946	+8,639	1,933	1,460	+473
New Mexico	66,258	53,691	+12,567	2,430	1,212	+1,218
Arizona	86,295	52,200	+34,095	6,130	2,454	+3,676
Utah	30,306	42,598	-12,292	520	620	-100
Nevada	26,267	18,341	+7,926	534	446	+88
PACIFIC:						
Washington	184,766	104,410	+80,356	2,446	2,451	-5
Oregon	158,323	81,302	+77,021	1,493	1,069	+424
California	851,644	206,931	+644,813	25,185	5,132	+20,053

state had a sex ratio of 109.3, but those who migrated between noncontiguous states had a sex ratio of only 93.3.

NEGRO MIGRATION TRENDS

A study of census reports on population and migration reveals that Negroes have been moving for the most part from rural to urban areas during the past decade and from the smaller towns to the larger cities. Between 1930 and 1940 the number of urban places having 2500 Negroes or more increased from 263 to 315 and the number of Negroes living in such places increased by 966,866 or 23.1 percent. The increase in the Negro population in cities with 2500 or more Negroes was higher than the rate of increase for the Negro population in all urban areas, which was 20.4 percent.

World War Migration

Major Negro migration during World War II started in the South and terminated in war-boom cities regardless of geographical location. This change from the South-to-North migration pattern is shown in the Negro population figures for nearly three quarters of the century prior to World War II.

From 1940 to 1944 Negro population movements usually started in the South

and ended in industrial points such as Detroit, Norfolk, San Francisco, and Los Angeles, where Negroes found employment in shipyards, airplane factories, and other war activities.

This is a change in the direction of Negro migration from 1870 to 1941. During that period, migration started in the South and, for the most part, terminated in large northern commercial and industrial cities.

From a study of ten congested production areas in 1944, the increase in Negro population from 1940 to 1944 (49 percent) was substantially above the rise in the total population of these areas (19 percent). The ten areas were: Detroit-Willow Run, Muskegon, Charleston, Hampton Roads, Mobile, Los Angeles, Portland-Vancouver, Puget Sound, San Diego, and San Francisco Bay.

Some migration statistics on these areas follow.

Detroit-Willow Run Area, Mich.

The proportion of nonwhites in the population of the Detroit-Willow Run production area rose from 7.2 percent in 1940 to 9.8 percent in 1944. There was a 5.2 percent increase in the white population and a 47.0 percent increase in the nonwhite population.

Almost all of the gain in white pop-

ulation, 109,270 out of 117,623, took place in that part of the metropolitan district outside cities of 50,000 or more inhabitants in 1944. The increase in the nonwhite population, which amounted to 82,938 for the area as a whole, was concentrated in Detroit proper, where the increase was 62,555. Practically all of the nonwhites in the area are Negroes.

Muskegon County Area, Mich.

The proportion of nonwhites in the population of the Muskegon County production area rose from 2.0 percent in 1940 to 4.5 percent in 1944. In the four-year period the white population increased from 92,608 to 103,327, or 11.5 percent, while the nonwhite population increased from 1893 to 4842, or 155.8 percent. Practically all of the nonwhites in the county are Negroes.

Charleston County Area, S.C.

Less than one eighth of the immigrants in Charleston County, S.C., between 1940 and 1944 were nonwhite. Consequently, the proportion of nonwhites in the population of the county dropped from 49.2 percent in 1940 to 38.9 percent in 1944. The absolute number of nonwhites, however, increased in all parts of the county except the part outside of the Charleston metropolitan district. The largest increase for nonwhites, as for whites, took place in the suburban part of the metropolitan district, outside of the city limits. Practically all of the nonwhites were Negroes.

Hampton Roads Area, Va.

Chiefly as a result of the relatively large number of whites among the immigrants, the proportion of nonwhites in the population dropped from 33.2 percent in 1940 to 28.3 percent in 1944. The increase, which amounted to 55.2 percent for the white population and 23.5 percent for the nonwhite population, took place in all parts of the area except Princess Anne County, where

there was a slight decrease in the number of nonwhites.

The white population in this area increased from 343,423 in 1940 to 496,790 in 1944; and the nonwhite population increased from 113,956 to 140,756. Practically all of the nonwhites are Negroes.

Mobile County Area, Ala.

The proportion of nonwhites in Mobile County decreased from 36.4 percent in 1940 to 27.6 percent in 1944. The actual nonwhite population increased from 51,786 during this period to 64,449 or 24.4 percent. The white population in this area increased from 90,296 in 1940 to 169,442 or 76 percent. Practically all of the nonwhites are Negroes.

Los Angeles Area, Calif.

The number of Negroes in the Los Angeles production area increased from 75,496 in 1940 to 134,519 in 1944, or 78.2 percent. The population of other nonwhite races (Chinese, Japanese, Indians, etc.) decreased from 52,543 to 13,244, mainly because of the relocation of the residents of Japanese descent, who numbered 38,721 in 1940. Persons of Mexican origin are classified as white unless they are definitely Indian or of other nonwhite races.

The white population increased from 2,916,403 to 3,356,969, or 15.1 percent.

Portland-Vancouver Area, Ore. and Wash.

The number of Negroes in the Portland-Vancouver area, bordering Oregon and Washington, increased from 2105 in 1940 to 11,316 in 1944, an increase of more than 400 percent. The population of other nonwhite races (Chinese, Japanese, Indian, etc.) decreased from 5369 to 2898, mainly because of the relocation of persons of Japanese descent, who numbered 2908 in 1940. The total population increased from 501,275 to 660,583, an increase of 33.6 percent.

Puget Sound Area, Wash.

The number of Negroes in the Puget Sound area nearly doubled in four years, increasing from 5242 in 1940 to 9792 in 1944 or 86 percent. The population of other nonwhite races (Chinese, Japanese, Indians, etc.) decreased from 18,394 to 8964 because of the relocation of persons of Japanese descent who numbered 12,315 in 1940. The entire population increased from 820,202 to 991,908 or 27.2 percent.

San Diego County Area, Calif.

The number of Negroes in San Diego County increased from 4444 in 1940 to 7755 in 1944, or about 74 percent, while that of the entire popula-

tion increased about 43 percent. Other nonwhite races decreased from 5276 in 1940 to 1920 in 1944, due mainly to the relocation of residents of Japanese descent.

San Francisco Bay Area, Calif.

The number of Negroes in the San Francisco Bay area, which included the cities of San Francisco, Oakland and Berkeley and six counties, from 19,759 in 1940 to 64,680 in 1944, or 227.3 percent. The entire population increased 28 percent. The other nonwhite races (Chinese, Japanese, Indians, etc.) decreased from 44,972 to 13,550, due mainly to the relocation of residents of Japanese descent.

CIVIL RIGHTS

SUFFRAGE

The years 1944 and 1945 were banner years for Negroes in the matter of suffrage rights in the South. It was in 1944 that the famous Texas Primary case was decided by the United States Supreme Court, settling the question of the Negro's right to vote in the Democratic primaries of southern states, a right which had been denied to them.

By its decision, the Supreme Court reversed itself in a previous decision involving the right of all qualified persons to take part in the state primary elections of political parties. Following its epochal opinion, Negroes voted for the first time in the Democratic primaries, not only in Texas, where the case originated, but in other Deep South states.

Texas Primary Case

On November 15, 1941, Dr. Lonnie E. Smith of Houston, Texas, filed suit against the county clerk and election judges of Harris County, asserting that they had denied to him and to other qualified Negroes the right to vote in the Democratic primary elections in July and August, 1940, in violation of the Constitution.

He sought \$5000 damages and a judgment declaring their policy unconstitutional, and asked for a permanent injunction restraining the defendants from pursuing the policy further.

The defendants contended that the Democratic party of Texas was a "voluntary association," and that it had a right to exclude Negroes from its primaries under the terms of a resolution it had passed in 1932. It based its arguments on a United States Supreme Court ruling in the **Grocery**

v. Townsend case of Texas (1942), which upheld the validity of the right of the Democratic party in Texas to conduct the primary as a private affair.

The Federal District Court in Houston denied Dr. Smith the relief sought, and the Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed its action.

On April 3, 1944, in an eight-to-one decision, the United States Supreme Court reversed the lower court's ruling.

The majority opinion of the Supreme Court stated, in part:

It may now be taken as a postulate that the right to vote in such a primary for the nomination of candidates without discrimination by the state, unlike the right to vote in a general election, is a right secured by the Constitution. By the terms of the Fifteenth Amendment that right may not be abridged by any state on account of race. Under our Constitution, the great privilege of choosing his rulers may not be denied a man by the state because of his color.

The court later amended its opinion so as to eliminate the word "ruler" which southerners had harped upon in their criticism of the decision. The sentence was changed to read: "Under the Constitution, the great privilege of the ballot may not be denied a man by the state because of his color."

The opinion stated further:

When primaries become a part of the machinery for choosing officials, state and national, as they have here, the same tests to determine the character of discrimina-

tion or abridgement should be applied to the primary as are applied to the general election.

The United States is a constitutional democracy. Its organic law grants to all citizens a right to participate in the choice of elected officials without restriction by any state because of race. This grant to the people of the opportunity for choice is not to be nullified by a state through casting its electoral process in a form which permits a private organization to practice racial discrimination in the election. Constitutional rights would be of little value if they could be thus indirectly denied.

The Texas Primary case marks the third time the question of the "white primary" had been before the Supreme Court. In 1927 the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, which conducted the Lonnie Smith case, carried the case of *Nixon v. Herndon* to the court, which ruled that the state of Texas could not exclude Negroes from the primary by means of a state statute.

Texas then passed a statute which gave the power to the executive committee of the Democratic party to decide who should vote in the primary. The executive committee promptly limited the primary to "white" persons.

In 1932 the NAACP again carried the question to the Supreme Court, where it was decided that this procedure was equally unlawful. The opinion, however, pointed out that the court did not pass upon the question as to whether or not it would be lawful for the Democratic party in convention assembled to decide on who should vote in the primary.

At the next convention of the state party, a resolution was passed limiting membership to "white" Democrats. In 1935 a group of interested Negro citizens in Houston carried the third case to the Supreme Court (*Grovey v. Townsend*). In that case the United

States Supreme Court held that this latter method of excluding Negroes did not violate the Constitution.

In 1941 the United States Supreme Court, in *United States v. Classic*, a case involving the refusal of primary election officials in Louisiana to count the ballots of certain white voters, ruled that where the primary is an integral part of the election machinery, or where the primary determines the final election, such primary is within the prohibitions of the United States Constitution. The question of race did not enter this case.

NAACP lawyers in 1941, using the *Classic* case as the basis for action, filed the Lonnie Smith case in the federal court in Houston, challenging the "white primary." At the trial it was established that the primary in Texas was an integral part of the election machinery of the state and that the Democratic primary determined the final election. It was also established that all white citizens were permitted to vote in the "Democratic" primary regardless of their party affiliations.

The case was originally tried in Houston, before Judge T. M. Kennerly, who dismissed it on May 11, 1942. An appeal was promptly perfected to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit and on November 30, 1942, the judgment of the lower court was affirmed. On January 21, 1943, the petition for rehearing was denied.

A petition for a writ of certiorari was filed in the United States Supreme Court on April 21, 1943, and was granted on June 7, 1943. The case was argued on November 12, 1943. Thurgood Marshall and William H. Hastie of the NAACP appeared on behalf of the petitioner. The American Civil Liberties Union, the National Lawyers' Guild and the Workers' Defense League filed briefs as "friends of the court." All of these briefs urged that the judgment of the lower courts be reversed. No brief was filed and no

appearance was entered for the respondents.

On December 6, 1943, the United States Supreme Court granted the motion of the Attorney General of Texas to file a brief and to have a reargument of the case. The case was again argued on January 12, 1944. Messrs. Marshall and Hastie represented the petitioner and the Assistant Attorney General of Texas appeared for the Attorney General of Texas. No brief or appearance was made by the respondents.

Aftermath of Texas Primary Case

Following the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Texas Primary case, officially called *Smith v. Allwright et al.*, Negroes cast their ballots in Democratic primaries and local elections for the first time since Reconstruction in a number of southern states. They voted rather freely in Texas, except in scattered cases. More than 1200 were reported to have voted in Dallas alone in the July, 1944, primary.

Little difficulty was experienced in Arkansas, although after the July, 1944, primary elections, both the state legislature and the Democratic executive committee took steps to bar Negroes from future primaries. The state Democratic executive committee, at its biennial session the next September voted to amend its rules requiring party loyalty as a requisite for a voter.

South Carolina took the Texas Primary decision bitterly. On the whole, Negroes were refused registration throughout the state. Governor Olin D. Johnston announced, shortly after the Supreme Court's opinion was handed down, that he would call a special session of the legislature to prevent Negroes from voting in the Democratic primaries. The legislature was called and voted to abrogate all primary laws from the state statute books, resulting in the state's not officially recognizing any political party.

A group of Negroes throughout the

state, led by Osceola E. McKaine of Columbia, organized the Progressive Democratic party and elected eighteen delegates to attend the Democratic National Convention in 1943. However, they were not permitted to be seated at the convention.

South Carolina is now the only state which has no secret ballot. Each political party or group prints and distributes its own ballots, and they are counted by the personnel of the regular Democratic party, with permission of other political parties to assist in the counting.

In Georgia,¹ South Carolina, Florida,¹ and Alabama,¹ considerable difficulty was experienced by prospective Negro voters in the 1944 primaries, although in scattered places some of them were permitted to cast their ballots, and in Louisiana and Mississippi few, if any, were permitted to exercise voting privileges.

At the beginning of 1946, however, Alabama capitulated, with its state Democratic executive committee voting to drop its regulation barring Negroes from voting in its May, 1946, primaries.

In North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, Oklahoma, and Virginia, where Negroes had previously been accorded the right to vote, they voted without difficulty.

As a result of denial of opportunity to register, several suits were prosecuted by Negroes in Georgia, Alabama, and Florida. They were conducted under the direction of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Some have reached decisions in local, state, and federal courts, and others are pending.

Primus King Case, Georgia

The Rev. Primus King of Columbus, Ga., filed suit against the Muscogee County Democratic Executive Committee and the registrar of the area for refusing to permit him to

¹ Suits filed in these states ended favorably for Negroes in the spring of 1946.

register for the 1944 primaries. In October, 1945, Federal Judge T. Hoyt Davis in Macon ruled against the defendants. The appellate court upheld the ruling. Following the decision, Negroes registered in droves throughout the area. In April, 1946, the United States Supreme Court refused to review the appellate court's decision, thereby upholding it.

Wallace Van Jackson Case, Georgia

The suit filed by Wallace Van Jackson of Atlanta against the registrar, T. E. Suttles, filed in July, 1944, was the outgrowth of a prearranged plan by white Georgia Democrats to get around the Texas Primary decision. Several hundred Atlanta Negroes went to the polls and were politely, but firmly, kept from voting. Suttles was sued for having registered Negroes in separate books and refusing to send their names to the polls. By this and other methods, groups of Negroes were not permitted to vote in Macon, Brunswick, Augusta, Albany, Columbus, and Savannah. The case was settled out of court by Suttles's agreeing to send the Negroes' names to the voting polls thereafter.

Arthur H. Madison Case, Alabama

An interesting case in Alabama, where Negroes experienced considerable difficulty at the polls during the 1944 primary, was that of Arthur H. Madison, New York attorney, formerly of Birmingham. Madison represented eight Negroes who had been denied registration. While the case was pending he was charged with representing persons without their authorization and was later fined \$500 and barred by the Common Pleas Court.

Some of the persons in the suit testified under duress and intimidation, it was reported, that they had not authorized the lawyer to represent them. The decision was upheld both by the Alabama Court of Appeals and the Supreme Court of the state.

Following the conviction and disbarment of Madison, Arthur D. Shores, a lawyer, of Birmingham took up the case for the eight Negroes who filed suits against the registrar in Montgomery for refusing to permit them to register. In April, 1944, Circuit Court Judge Walter B. Jones dismissed their petition on the grounds that their appeals had not been filed within the statutory thirty-day limit after conclusion of the last session of the County Board of Registrars.

Mr. Shores had contended that the board had officially failed to deny them registration and had told them that they would be notified later.

William P. Mitchell Case, Alabama

William P. Mitchell, an employee at the Veterans' Facility at Tuskegee Institute, filed suit against the board of registrars of Macon County on behalf of himself and other Negroes who had been denied registration in Montgomery in the fall of 1945. In December, Federal Judge C. B. Kenamer dismissed his petition and the case was appealed to the Circuit Court. In April, 1946, the appellate court reversed the lower court's decision, Judge Edwin R. Holmes of Mississippi, in announcing the unanimous opinion of the court, said that "since the registration is prerequisite to vote in Alabama, the action of the registrars did effectively deprive appellant of the right to vote."

Chavis and Comwell Case, Florida

The case in Pensacola, Escambia County, Fla., filed by Essau Chavis and R. A. Comwell against the county board of registrars, appears to have decided the question of Negroes voting in the primaries in that state once and for all. It grew out of the 1944 primaries when Negroes throughout Florida were denied, except in scattered instances, the opportunity to register.

In February, 1945, Circuit Court Judge L. L. Favisinski issued a writ of mandamus ordering the registrars to

register the two men, and the following July the Florida Supreme Court upheld the decision.

Later in the year the Secretary of State was advised by State's Attorney General Tom Watson, that registrars must permit Negroes to register as Democrats and vote in the state primaries. In the primaries held in early 1946, Negroes voted freely.

Edward Hall Case, Louisiana

Negroes had considerable difficulty in registering in some parts of Louisiana following the Texas Primary decision. Edward Hall of New Orleans filed suit shortly after the 1944 primaries on behalf of himself and others in St. John the Baptist Parish. He sued T. J. Nagel, registrar, for refusing to register him, after subjecting him to unreasonable questions not

asked of white electors. In September, 1945, United States District Court Judge Adrian J. Caillouet dismissed the suit without comment. The decision was appealed and in April, 1946, the appellate court, sitting in Mississippi, unanimously reversed the lower court's dismissal decision, ruling that Mr. Hall was within his rights in suing in a federal court without first seeking redress in a state court.

Dallas Graham Case, Florida

The case of Dallas J. Graham of Jacksonville, Fla., against the registrar for refusing to register him in 1944 was an important one in that it was decided in favor of the Negro plaintiff at its first trial in the lower (circuit) court. In April, Judge DeWitt T. Gray ordered the registrar, Fleming Bowden, to register Graham.

RESTRICTIVE COVENANT CASES

The number of restrictive neighborhood covenant cases, which have been on the increase during the past decade, continued to increase during the war years. Cities in which they predominated were Los Angeles, Chicago, Washington, Detroit, and St. Louis, although a number have been instituted in other cities, usually in the North.

These covenants are agreements entered into by property owners in various neighborhoods to refuse to sell, or to lease or rent their property to Negroes or to permit them to occupy it in any way. Efforts to have such covenants ruled unconstitutional by the higher courts of the country have been unsuccessful.

The United States Supreme Court held, in 1926, in the case of **Corrigan v. Buckley** in Washington, D.C., that the Fourteenth Amendment did not apply to a covenant forbidding sale of property because a deed is the action of an individual and not of the state. This case involved the sale of a house to Dr. A. M. Curtis, a Negro, in an area covered by a restrictive covenant

agreement made by white property owners.

The rapid increase of restrictive covenant suits during the past several years has been attributed to congestion in industrial areas due to the influx of Negroes and other minority groups.

During the past four years more than twenty covenant suits, probably affecting a hundred Negro families, have been entered in Los Angeles alone. Chicago had about sixteen such suits pending at the end of 1945, which affected about fifty Negro families. A dozen or more have been instituted in Washington, D.C., several in St. Louis and Detroit, and others in scattered cities in the North.

Negro civil and legal groups have been concentrating their efforts on having these covenants outlawed. During the past few years one case was filed with the United States Supreme Court (see Mays case below), but the court refused to review the decision of the lower court which declared that the covenant in question was legal and enforceable.

Efforts are now being made to have laws passed in the various state legislatures or in municipal legislative bodies to outlaw the covenants. One such bill was introduced in the Illinois Legislature and another was placed on the agenda of the Chicago City Council.

Negro and other minority groups, usually Mexican or Oriental, have been victorious in a number of the cases, but court decisions were based on technicalities of the execution or enforcement of the covenants. In most of these decisions, the courts held that the covenants were no longer enforceable because their purpose had been frustrated by the change in the character of the neighborhoods affected; in other words, that Negroes had already moved into the areas to such an extent that they could no longer be considered "white" neighborhoods.

Other rulings ending in favor of Negroes were based on the fact that the covenants had not been signed by the majority of white property owners in the section, or that there was a mistake in the listing of the number of the lots involved, or for other technical reasons.

The cases listed below are typical of the various suits prosecuted and the decisions rendered. They are not listed according to their legal titles, but according to the popular names.

"Sugar Hill or Blueberry Hill Case," Los Angeles

Eight white families living in the West Adams Heights Tract (more commonly called Sugar Hill or Blueberry Hill) in Los Angeles sought to compel about 30 property owners, mostly Negroes, to vacate the homes they had purchased in the face of a restrictive covenant agreement barring occupancy of the property in question by Negroes. The suit was filed against some of the Negroes four years before, and while it was pending, other Negro families were sued and the cases were combined.

The combined case was decided in

the Superior Court of Los Angeles on December 6, 1945, when Judge Thurman Clark dismissed the suits, citing among his reasons that they violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

This decision was hailed by Negroes throughout the country as an epic one, due to the fact that for the first time in the history of such cases involving occupancy of property by Negroes, a court based its ruling on violation of the Constitution.

The decision was appealed by the white plaintiffs and it is expected to go before the United States Supreme Court. The California Supreme Court has previously held such covenants legal and enforceable.

Named among the defendants were a number of outstanding Negro moving picture actors and nationally known musicians, including Hattie McDaniel, Louise Beavers, Ethel Waters, and Noble Sissle.

In handing down his decision to dismiss the case, Judge Clark said, in part:

The colored people have too long been deprived of their constitutional rights. It is time some court started in to protect those rights. . . . This court is of the opinion that members of the Negro race should be accorded without reservations and evasions the full rights guaranteed them under the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution.

Attorneys for the defendants were Loren Miller, Willis O. Tyler, and others.

Mays Case, Washington, D.C.

Miss Clara Mays, a federal government employee in Washington, lost her case in a restrictive covenant suit filed by white property owners to compel her to vacate her home which she had purchased, at 2213 First Street, N.W., in the face of a restrictive neighborhood covenant executed in 1925. In

June, 1944, Justice Daniel W. O'Donoghue of the District Court ruled in favor of the plaintiffs.

The District Court of Appeals upheld this decision stating that such covenants are valid and enforceable unless there has been a change in the character of the neighborhood. The court held that the neighborhood was "an unbroken white community." In May and in June, 1945, the United States Supreme Court refused to review the decision of the lower court.

Miss Mays was ordered to move by September 27, but was later given a stay of time due to the fact that she contended she could not find any place to live with her family of several nieces and nephews. Having failed to vacate her property by the time set by the court, Miss Mays was adjudged in contempt of court and ordered to move by November 1 or be sent to jail.

A few days before her time was up, she moved into a house in the next block, which was occupied by a white family, occupying one of the floors. The white family was expected to move within a few months and turn over the house to her.

In the District of Columbia, covenants prohibiting the sale of property to Negroes have been upheld by the court, but in California, Maryland, and other states, such sales have been held unconstitutional, although the right to prohibit occupancy of restricted property has been upheld as constitutional.

Laws Case, Los Angeles

The case against Mr. and Mrs. Henry Laws, decided in November, 1945, resulted in a contempt of court action against Laws for his refusal to move from his home in the 1200 block of East 92nd Street in Los Angeles after the court had ruled in favor of the white plaintiffs seeking to have him evacuate his property. Superior Court Judge Allen Washburn, who rendered the decision, sentenced the Laws fam-

ily to five days in jail and a \$50 fine, with the additional order that if they did not pay the fine at the end of the five days, they were to serve time at the rate of \$10 a day.

After five days they were released on a writ of habeas corpus granted by the state's Supreme Court pending a review of their case.

Arlington and Jefferson Property Owners Association, Los Angeles

A covenant suit was prosecuted against 15 Negro families, but whose decision would affect about 77 families, in the Jefferson Park Tract in Los Angeles. Superior Court Judge Carl Stutsman, in March, 1945, ruled the covenant void in the case of Oscar Barbee, one of the defendants, on the grounds that the neighborhood had changed character since the covenant was signed and its effect was thereby nullified.

Other Los Angeles Cases

In 1944, Superior Court Judge William J. Palmer ruled against several Negro families on West 50th Street between Main Street and Broadway in Los Angeles, declaring the covenant was enforceable regardless of whether the racial character of the neighborhood had changed.

The California Supreme Court in 1944 reversed a lower court's decision, ruling against Mr. and Mrs. Ross H. Raines, purchasers of a house in Pasadena, who had been ordered to evacuate their house. The supreme court's decision was based on the grounds that enforcement of the covenant would not serve the general public's interest in that the character of the neighborhood had changed through transactions which did not violate the covenant.

Several other Negro families were victors or losers in covenant suits decided in California on similar grounds as given above. One was decided in favor of Benny Carter, on the basis that white signers of the covenant in

the area had "slept on their rights," in that a number of Negroes had moved into the restricted areas several years previously.

Jefferson Case, Washington, D.C.

In June, 1945, the District Court in Washington declared void the sale of a house to Robert and Pearl Jefferson by a white woman in an area covered by a restrictive covenant agreement barring both sale and occupancy of the property. The house concerned was located at 55 Randolph Place. By court order the deed of sale reverted to the white owner. The covenant covered a period of 21 years and was to terminate in February 6, 1945. Several other suits were pending in the restricted area at the time of this decision.

Other Washington Cases

An injunction sought to declare void the sale of a house at 101 U Street, N.W., to the Gospel Spreading Association of which the Rev. Elder Light-foot Solomon Michaux is the president, was denied by the United States Court of Appeals in Washington on the grounds that the covenant did not cover the sale of property, only the occupancy of it.

Robert J. Harlan, at 3209 13th Street, N.W., was victor in a covenant suit in January, 1926, on the grounds that the white plaintiffs had waited too long (three years) before filing suit to oust him. In giving his decision, Justice Henry A. Schweinhaut also said that the Harlans had adjusted themselves to their home and eviction would impose undue hardships upon them.

PUBLIC CARRIERS' CASES

The assigning of Negroes to separate (Jim Crow) coaches on railroad and other facilities traveling through the South has been attacked by Negroes on several fronts, but this practice has not been broken down in the courts of the land. The United States Supreme Court has held that separation is not discrimination, and it has not interfered with state action on the matter, except to hold that equal accommodations must be provided.¹

Some progress has been made during recent years in improving facilities for use by Negroes traveling in the South. In the suit of Congressman Arthur W. Mitchell against the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific Railroad, it was decided unanimously by the United States Supreme Court on April 28, 1941, that railroads must provide accommodations for Negroes equal to those provided for whites.

Mr. Mitchell had contended that he was compelled to ride in a second-class coach (day coach), which was "filthy and foul-smelling" although he had

paid first-class (Pullman) fare. Since that time railroads have provided better accommodations for Negroes and now serve them in some capacity in their dining cars.

Abiding by the letter of the law, most of the railroads now serve Negroes in the diners, but many of them separate them from white diners by drawing curtains about the tables at which they sit, or making them wait until all white passengers have been served in the diner. In many cases the railroads try to avoid the violation of the law by serving Negroes at their seats. (See Henderson case below.)

An effort to break down this practice was made by eighteen Negro seamen in 1943, but they met without success. The Interstate Commerce Commission ruled that the railroad's refusal to serve them in the diner while white passengers were eating did not constitute discrimination.

Suits filed by Negroes against railroads continued to increase since the United States Supreme Court handed

¹ The Supreme Court, in May, 1946, ruled against the separation of races in interstate bus travel. (See Irene Morgan case.)

down its opinion in the case of Congressman Arthur Mitchell. A number of them reached decisions in state courts, and at least two were pending before the United States Supreme Court at the end of 1945. These two suits are directed against the practice of southern states in segregating interstate passengers.

Several cases were decided out of court in favor of the Negro plaintiffs and a number of others were pending at the end of 1945. In one settlement Miss Helen Thompson of Kansas City, Mo., was awarded \$800 by the Missouri-Kansas-Texas Railroad in an out-of-court settlement after she had sued, charging that she had been forced to ride in a segregated coach from San Antonio, Tex., to Kansas City, Mo., despite the fact that she had purchased a Pullman ticket. Another road awarded \$1000 to Mrs. Yolanda Barnett (Wilkerson). (See case below.)

The Maryland legislature made an attempt to repeal its Jim Crow travel law during 1945. The bill passed by a two-to-one vote in the Senate, but was defeated in the House.

Yolanda Barnett Case

An important case during 1944-1945 was filed by Miss Yolanda Barnett, later Mrs. Wilkerson, who sued the Texas and Pacific Railroad for refusing to serve her in the diner and subjecting her to rough and humiliating treatment. Although the case was finally decided out of court and Mrs. Wilkerson awarded a settlement of \$1000, it was important in that it established a precedent not heretofore used by Negroes, that of entering suit against a southern road in a northern court where that road maintains offices for the purpose of doing business.

The incident occurred in February, 1944, and in March Mrs. Wilkerson, who was Miss Barnett at the time, filed suit in the Supreme Court of New York County, and with the Interstate Commerce Commission. In June, the federal district court in New York

ruled that it lacked jurisdiction in the case, since the company did not "do business" in the state.

In November, the New York Circuit Court of Appeals in a two-to-one decision reversed the ruling of the federal court, thereby establishing the right to bring suit in New York, where the road maintained an office. In July, 1945, after holding hearings in Dallas, Tex., where the incident occurred, the Interstate Commerce Commission stepped the civil rights issue, holding that a half hour was not too long to wait for dining car service.

Mrs. Wilkerson had contended that she was made to wait a half hour before being served, in order to let two white persons who were in the car finish their meal, although there were empty seats in the section reserved for Negroes.

Since the circuit court ruling, other Negroes have entered suits against southern roads in northern courts where, they feel, they will have a better opportunity for a fair trial.

Elmer W. Henderson Case

Another progressive decision was won during 1945 by Elmer W. Henderson of Baltimore, who sued the Southern Railroad, complaining that when he was en route from Washington to Atlanta, Ga., in May, 1942, he was denied service in the diner on three different occasions. He was turned away each time, he charged, because white persons were sitting at the tables reserved for Negroes. He refused to accept service at his Pullman seat. When the train reached Greensboro, N.C., the dining car was taken off and he did not get a chance to eat.

The Interstate Commerce Commission ruled that the railway was guilty of discrimination, but dismissed the complaint on the grounds that the discrimination was the result of the "bad judgment of an employee."

The case was appealed to the Federal District Court in Baltimore, Md., and

this court in December, 1945, held unanimously that the railroad's dining car service was inadequate and its regulation invalid in that it failed to provide enough tables for Negroes. The court held that a railroad must serve a Negro customer whenever there is a vacancy and pointed out that if white persons could occupy tables reserved for Negroes, then Negroes should have the right to occupy other tables. Belford V. Lawson of Washington, D.C., argued the case for Mr. Henderson.

Irene Morgan Case

For the first time in 68 years the question of whether states can discriminate against interstate passengers on public carriers was brought before the United States Supreme Court in early 1946. The case concerned Miss Irene Morgan, a resident of Baltimore, who refused to move from the front seat she occupied on a Greyhound bus to a rear seat, at the request of the driver. She was traveling from Gloucester County, Va., to Baltimore, Md. The case was scheduled to be argued before the court on March 6, 1946.

After Miss Morgan failed to comply with the driver's order, she was arrested and convicted in the circuit court in Middlesex County in October, 1944, and fined \$10 and costs of court.

She appealed to the Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals which upheld the lower court's verdict. Miss Morgan contended that the segregation law of Virginia is not valid for interstate passengers, that it therefore violates the federal Constitution. The Virginia Court of Appeals held that two basic questions were involved in the case: whether the segregation statute, when applied to a passenger in interstate commerce, is constitutional, and whether it should be interpreted as limiting its operation to passengers in intrastate commerce.

The opinion stated, in part:

The general rule is that if the enactment which required the segregation of races according to color directly or unreasonably interferes with commerce, it is not constitutional. But unless the regulation unreasonably burdens commerce, it is valid. There is no evidence in this case that the rule of the carrier or the statute under which it was promulgated does so.

The act [segregation law] provides that all passenger motor vehicles operating under Chapter 161A of the code shall segregate passengers according to color . . . that those so operating shall make no difference of distinction in the quality or convenience of the accommodations provided for the races.

The Virginia statute demands equality of treatment of the white and Negro races by the carriers as well as equality in the facilities provided by the carriers for them. A statute which would permit inequalities in these respects would be invalid.

Here the segregation statutes are enforced against the members of the white as well as against those of the Negro race. They must be enforced equally and without discrimination against both races.

The United States Supreme Court, in the case of *Hall v. DeCuir*, 1877, held that the local statute in Louisiana prohibiting segregation of passengers did not apply to interstate passengers.

On June 3, 1946, in what was considered an epochal decision, the United States Supreme Court held, six to one, that the Virginia law segregating passengers on busses in interstate travel is unconstitutional. The decision did not mention interstate travel on railroads.

The majority opinion was written by Justice Stanley F. Reed. Justice Harold H. Burton dissented, while Justices

Hugo L. Black and Felix Frankfurter presented concurring opinions.

Justice Reed's opinion stated that the Virginia law imposed undue burden upon interstate commerce, where he held "uniformity" was necessary. Justice Burton denied that there exists a requirement for uniformity and declared that it was a fundamental concept of the Constitution that diversified treatment should match diversified needs.

The opinion stated in part:

As there is no federal act dealing with the separation of races in interstate transportation, we must decide the validity of this Virginia statute on the challenge that it interferes with commerce, as a matter of balance between the exercise of the local police power and the need for national uniformity in the regulations for interstate travel.

It seems clear to us that seating arrangements for the different races in interstate motor travel require a single, uniform rule to promote and protect national travel. Consequently, we hold the Virginia statute in controversy invalid.

The case was argued before the Supreme Court in March, 1946, by Thurgood Marshall, chief counsel for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and William H. Hastie, dean of the Howard University Law School, who was later appointed Governor of the Virgin Islands.

Emma McLemore, Ruth Powell et al., Case

Another case similar to the Morgan case above, bearing on the validity of the segregation law involving interstate passengers, was tried and lost in the Virginia courts. Four Howard University female students who had refused to sit in the rear of a bus operated between Virginia and the District of Columbia were convicted in a trial court in early 1945.

The young women were fined \$5 each by the Fairfax County Circuit Court after they had waived a jury trial. The circuit court upheld the lower court's ruling and the case was appealed to the United States Supreme Court. (Decision was pending as *The Negro Handbook* went to press.)

Maggie Mack Case

Miss Maggie Mack of Springfield, Mo., was awarded a \$1500 court judgment by the Federal District Court in St. Louis, in February, 1944, for being forced to move from a front to a rear seat on a Greyhound bus when it crossed the state line from Missouri to Arkansas.

Justice Richard M. Duncan ordered the jury to give a verdict in favor of Miss Mack. She had asked \$500 actual damages for bodily harm and \$20,000 punitive damages, claiming that when she refused to move, the bus driver called a policeman who slapped her and pushed her into the rear seat.

Sarah B. Davis Case

In the summer of 1943 Mrs. Sarah Morris Davis was arrested and fined \$5 in Norfolk, Va., by the Corporation Court, for alleged violation of the state segregation law. She was charged with having refused to move from a front seat, where she sat between two white men when she boarded the bus. She testified that the driver did not assign her to a seat in the rear and that there was no other vacancy in the bus. She appealed the case, and in July, 1944, the State Supreme Court of Appeals reversed the judgment of the lower court.

In handing down the decision, Judge John W. Eggleston said that the driver made no request of any white passenger to move forward in the bus and exchange places with the plaintiff "in order that she might occupy that portion of the vehicle required of her under law, nor did he suggest such an arrangement for her."

Sara Exner Case

An unusual case of a white woman being convicted for her refusal to obey a state segregation law was that of Mrs. Sara Exner of New York, who was arrested in Alexandria, Va., in the summer of 1945 for refusing to move from her seat in the rear, where she sat among Negroes, to a front seat. She was fined \$10 and costs of court.

Elizabeth Ray Case

Mrs. Elizabeth Ray, the only Negro member of a party of graduates of the Cass Commerce Ordinance School, in Detroit, was ejected from a boat owned by the Bob-Lo Company in the summer of 1945. The party was on an excursion picnic. She sued the company, charging violation of Michigan's civil rights law. In December, a judge of the Recorder's Court fined the company \$25 and gave it a stay of twenty days in which to file an appeal.

The company contended that it was not a common carrier and did not come under the civil rights act.

Jernagin, et al. Case

The Rev. William H. Jernagin,

Ralph Matthews, and William J. Scott of Washington, D.C., sued the Southern Railway System in February, 1944, seeking damages of \$15,000 each on a charge that they were forced to give up their reserved seats for which they had purchased tickets in Philadelphia, and were ejected from the train at Lynchburg, Va., while en route to Greensboro, N.C.

The plaintiffs contended that they had purchased first-class tickets and were ordered to move to a Jim Crow coach when they reached Alexandria.

Having failed to persuade them to move at Alexandria, the train was held up for seven minutes in Charlottesville, they said, and again in Lynchburg, while conductors attempted to persuade them to move. At this point, policemen were called and they ejected them. The three then boarded a train back to Washington.

They charged the railroad with breach of contract and argued that as interstate passengers they were not subject to the Virginia segregation law.

A jury in the United States District Court in Washington, D.C., ruled against the men in April, 1945. The decision was appealed.

TEACHERS' SALARY CASES

Historical Review as of September, 1945

By Thurgood Marshall, Chief Counsel, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People

Introduction

The campaign of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People to equalize salaries of white and Negro teachers began in 1936 when the salary scales for the teachers for the school year 1935-1936, in fifteen of the eighteen southern states which maintained segregated schools, were as follows [see page 41].

This fight has consistently grown in intensity and proportion during the past nine and a half years. During this period some thirty-two suits have been prosecuted in twelve states. Of

these thirty-two cases, twenty-three have been brought to a successful conclusion and four are still pending. The purpose of this article is to present in some detail the legal high lights in all of the cases which have been handled to date.²

First Six Cases

Initially, the procedural method adopted in the legal battle against

² Not all of the cases to be discussed have been reported. In instances where cases have been reported, the proper citation will be given. The absence of a citation means that the case involved has not yet been reported.

Salary Scales for Teachers
1935-1936

State	White	Negro	Differential
Alabama	\$709	\$328	\$381
Arkansas	550	316	234
District of Columbia	2,376	2,376	0
Florida	1,030	493	537
Georgia	709	282	427
Kentucky	802	607	195
Louisiana	931	403	528
Maryland	1,515	1,187	328
Mississippi	783	247	536
North Carolina	811	543	268
Oklahoma	926	821	105
South Carolina	825	302	523
Tennessee	752	520	232
Texas	991	604	207
Virginia	901	520	381

salary discrimination was in the form of a mandamus action brought in an appropriate state court, to compel salary-fixing authorities to fix salaries for school personnel without regard to race or color. This procedure was adopted in the first six cases instituted, viz., *William Gibbs v. Board of Education*, Montgomery County, Md.; *Elizabeth Brown v. Board of Education*, Calvert County, Md.; *Griffin v. Ocala County School Board*, Florida; *Aline Black v. School Board*, Norfolk, Va.; *Cook v. Prince George County School Board*, Md.; and *John Gilbert v. School Board*, Brevard County, Fla.

The Gibbs case was the first suit in the line of teachers' salary cases to be instituted. The complaint in the case was filed on December 8, 1936, at the instance of the Maryland State Colored Teachers Association. In the imminence of a ruling by the local court favorable to the plaintiff, the board of education agreed to equalize all salaries within a two-year period. This decision resulted in a gain of approximately \$30,000 a year to Negro teachers in the county.

The complaint in the Brown case was filed on November 10, 1937, in behalf of Elizabeth Brown, an elementary-school teacher. Soon after its institution the case was settled out of court by an agreement on the part of the board of education to equalize salaries by August, 1939. The action in the Cook case, the third of the three early Mary-

land cases, was begun by a complaint filed on March 24, 1938. The case was discontinued when the school board consented to equalize salaries by September 1, 1940.³

The Griffin complaint was filed in 1937 by N. W. Griffin, principal of a school in Ocala County, Fla. The local court dismissed the petition upon the ground that inasmuch as there was no statutory provision requiring salary schedules for white teachers, there was no legal basis for court interference to compel the establishment of such schedules for colored teachers. As the plaintiff was subsequently dismissed from the school system, the case was dropped upon the ground of being moot.

The Black case constituted the beginning of the fight against salary discriminations in the state of Virginia. The case was begun by the filing of a petition on behalf of Aline E. Black, a local school teacher, alleging that the discrimination in teachers' salaries, based solely on race, was a denial of equal protection of the law, and requesting that such a practice be discontinued. Upon refusal of the action requested, a complaint was filed in the local state court. The defendant's demurrer to the complaint was sustained.

While preparations were being made to appeal the case, the plaintiff was dismissed from the school system, thus thwarting the appeal. However, anticipating such action, another plaintiff had been selected and a suit based upon a different theory had been prepared and was ready for filing. This second case was that of *Alston v. Norfolk School Board*, to be discussed subsequently.

The last of the cases in this initial effort was the Gilbert case. The mandamus petition in this case was filed in the local circuit court in Brevard County, Fla., on May 24, 1938. The

³ In each of these cases the agreement provided for the establishment of a policy of nondiscrimination and proportionate increases during the period of equalization.

local court dismissed the petition, and upon appeal to the Florida Supreme Court, the latter, on July 28, 1938, affirmed the decision of the local court, holding that mandamus was not the proper remedy in such a case.

Change of Procedure

As a result of the decision of the Florida Supreme Court in the Gilbert case, the method of proceeding in teachers' salary cases underwent a complete reversal. Henceforth, the procedure was to be the bringing of an action for a declaratory judgment and injunction, based upon the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment, and Section 43 of Title 8 of the United States Code, in an appropriate federal court, instead of a petition for mandamus in a state court.

Maryland Cases

This new procedure made its debut in the first of the two Mills cases in Maryland. On December 12, 1938, an action entitled *Mills v. Lowndes* was filed in the Federal District Court in Baltimore, seeking a declaratory judgment to the effect that the discrimination in the payment of teachers' salaries based solely on race, was contrary to the equal protection of the 14th Amendment, and an injunction against the continuation of the practice.

A motion made to dismiss the complaint was sustained on March 1, 1939. The court, while acknowledging the petitioner's standing to sue, concluded that the school board, and not Lowndes in his individual capacity, was the proper defendant in the action. This decision, posed as it was, pointed the way to the second Mills case, viz., *Mills v. Anne Arundel County School Board*.

The latter complaint was filed in the Federal District Court on April 14, 1939. The trial of the case on the merits was held in November, 1939. On November 22, Judge Calvin Chesnut handed down a decision granting the injunction prayed for and estab-

lishing law on teachers' salary discriminations for the first time in federal courts.

In the course of his opinion, Judge Chesnut stated:

I conclude therefore from the pleadings and testimony that the plaintiff has established that he, as a colored teacher, is unconstitutionally discriminated against in the practice of his profession by the discrimination made between white and colored teachers by the county board of Anne Arundel county; and that he is entitled to an injunction against the continuation of such discrimination to the extent that it is based solely on the grounds of race or color, and that he is also entitled to a declaratory decree to the effect that such unlawful discrimination exists. . . .

The Mills case represented an important step in the uphill battle for the equalization of teachers' salaries, and upon the strength of Judge Chesnut's opinion, most of the remaining counties in Maryland which had formerly discriminated in the payment of teachers' salaries voluntarily discontinued the practice.

Virginia Cases

In Virginia, the outstanding, though not the only, teachers' salary case was that of *Alston v. Norfolk School Board*. This case was the successor to the Black case, which was dropped when the plaintiff in that case was dismissed from the school system. Following the new procedure adopted, the complaint in this case was filed in the United States District Court on November 2, 1939.

On February 29, 1940, after having heard argument on a motion to dismiss, the District Court dismissed the plaintiff's complaint. An appeal was immediately taken from this adverse decision to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which, on June 18, 1940, reversed the decision of the Dis-

strict Court, with Judge J. Parker writing the opinion.

The opinion read, in part:

That an unconstitutional discrimination is set forth in these paragraphs hardly admits of argument. The allegation is that the state, in paying for public services of the same kind and qualified according to standards which the state itself prescribes, arbitrarily pays less to Negroes than to white persons. This is as clear a discrimination on the ground of race as could well be imagined and falls squarely within the inhibition of both the due process and the equal protection clauses of the 14th Amendment.

The United States Supreme Court, on October 28, 1940, denied the school board's petition for certiorari. The final decree in the case, agreed upon by the school board and the local teachers' association, was entered in the District Court on February 17, 1941, and required complete equalization of salaries by 1943, with partial payments on the differential in 1941 and 1942.

The Alston case is the most outstanding of the NAACP's teachers' salary cases (it is probably equaled in importance, however, by the Susie Morris case to be discussed here), for it is the first of the cases to get beyond the District Court, and, in addition, is the only one of the teachers' salary cases to receive the attention of the United States Supreme Court.

The other two cases in Virginia were **Bowler v. Richmond School Board** and **Roles v. Newport News School Board**. The Bowler complaint was filed in the United States District Court on December 24, 1941, after the local teachers' association had been negotiating for over three years trying to obtain equalization. Prior to the filing of the complaint, the teachers had filed with the board a petition on No-

vember 25, 1941, requesting equalization in five years.

The board rejected this proposal, tendering a counter proposal for equalization in twelve years. However, immediately following the filing of a complaint in the local federal court, the school board accepted the teachers' plan for equalization, and on May 5, 1942, a consent decree to this effect was signed, retroactive to September 1, 1941.

The complaint in the Roles case was likewise filed after the local teachers had negotiated with and petitioned the school board for equalization to no avail. The action was begun on December 24, 1941, in the local Federal District Court. In January, 1943, the court handed down a decision in the case for the plaintiff, effective in September, 1943. An interesting point in the case was the court's rejection of the defendants' plea that the difference in cost of living of the two classes of teachers justified the difference in salaries paid. In reply to this argument the same judge who dismissed the complaint in the Alston case said:

That may or may not be a fact. It is probably true to a large extent. However, the difference may be due at least in part to the fact that many of the colored teachers have to live under conditions that white teachers ordinarily would not be willing to live under. But it is patent that the difference in the cost of living of white teachers and colored teachers cannot be the basis of a valid discrimination under the Constitution.

[Editor's Note: On May 25, 1945, the Newport News School Board was found guilty of failing to comply with the court order entered in the Roles case, and granted the plaintiff's petition to show cause why the board should not be held in contempt of court for failure to fulfill the court's decree. In September, 1945, the board

bowed to the court order and paid a total of \$21,000 in back salaries to the Negro teachers, plaintiff's attorney's fees amounting to \$3000, and court costs of approximately \$1000, besides paying their own attorneys from \$5000 to \$6000.]

Kentucky Cases

The case of *Abbington v. Louisville School Board* represents the only Kentucky case thus far. Following the denial of a petition for equalization, the complaint in the case was filed in the Federal District Court on December 5, 1940. Immediately after the bringing of the suit, the local school board agreed that if the plaintiff would drop her suit, to avoid the appearance of culpability, it would discontinue discrimination in salary payments. The plaintiff withdrew her suit, without prejudice, upon defendants' abolishing the 15 percent differential which had formerly existed in the salary schedules.

Louisiana Cases

To date, three teachers' salary cases have been prosecuted in Louisiana, two of which are still pending. The first case was that of *McKelpin v. New Orleans School Board*. Following fruitless negotiations and petitioning the complaint in that case was filed against the school board on January 12, 1942. After having its motion to dismiss overruled, the board consented to eliminate salary differentials.

The two cases which are still pending are *McMillon v. Iberville Parish School Board* and *Lee v. Jefferson Parish School Board*. The complaint in the *McMillon* case was filed on December 11, 1943. On February 21, 1944, defendants made a motion to dismiss the complaint, which motion was overruled. The trial of the case on the merits was held on November 27, 28, and 29, 1944. At the end of the trial the court advised counsel for both sides that its decision would be held

in abeyance to permit counsel to negotiate for a compromise settlement.

Negotiations were begun, but when after a lapse of six months no agreement was reached, the court ordered counsel to submit additional briefs, following which the court will render its decision in the matter. This decision is still pending.

The *Lee* complaint was filed on March 29, 1943. During the pendency of the suit, the plaintiff was dismissed. A mandamus action was immediately brought in the local state court seeking the reinstatement of plaintiff, upon the ground that the reasons given for her discharge were unfounded. The local court granted the mandamus petition, ordering that plaintiff be reinstated and that she be paid back wages with interest.

The school board has noted an appeal from the order requiring reinstatement to the State Supreme Court, and this appeal is still pending. Nothing further has been done, nor will be done, in the original action (the action in the Federal Court for injunction) until the issue in the mandamus proceeding has been settled.

Tennessee Cases

In Tennessee three suits have been brought, all of which have ended favorably for the plaintiffs. The first case was *Robinson v. Chattanooga School Board*. This action was begun by a complaint filed on June 10, 1941. In July, defendants moved that the complaint be dismissed. Shortly after argument on September 20 on the motion to dismiss, defendants agreed to equalize salaries and to establish a single salary schedule without reference to race.

Following the defendants' action, the plaintiff had his case placed on the court's inactive list, to be recalled if defendants failed to carry through. On October 1, 1942, the local school board gave the Negro teachers an increase in salaries of \$80 to \$140 as the first step toward equalization, and promised that

62 percent of \$140,000 presently available for salary increases would be allotted to Negro teachers.

The action in the second Tennessee case, **Thomas v. Nashville School Board**, was begun by a complaint filed in the regional Federal District Court on April 12, 1941. The trial of the case on the merits was held on February 20, 1942. On July 28, 1942, the court handed down a decision in favor of the plaintiff.

Interesting in this case were some of the grounds of defense raised by the school board. It alleged (1) that the discrimination in salary was not based upon the race of the teachers but upon the race of the students taught; thus, if white teachers were to teach Negro pupils they would receive the same pay that the Negro teachers receive (the obvious answer to this defense, and it was so interposed, is that only Negro teachers were employed to teach Negro pupils) and (2) that the salaries paid the teachers were based upon the proportion of taxes collected from the two races; a defense difficult to support and one which was rejected by the court.

The court concluded:

... The rules, regulations, practice, usage and customs of the Board of Education of the City of Nashville, in adopting separate schedules of salaries paid to white and colored teachers, wherein the salaries fixed for white teachers are considerably larger than the salaries fixed for the colored teachers, which said differential is based solely on the ground of race and color, is an unconstitutional discrimination. . . . Plaintiff is entitled to a declaratory judgment decreeing that the distribution of the public school funds for teachers' salaries on a basis whereby plaintiff Thomas and other Negro teachers employed by the Board of Education of the City of Nashville with equal qualifications and ex-

perience and performing essentially the same duties and services as the white teachers, but receiving a smaller salary therefor solely by reason of their race or color, is a denial to the plaintiff Thomas and others similarly situated of the equal protection of the law and due process of the law as guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States of America. . . .

The other of the Tennessee trio was **Jackson Colored Teachers Association v. Jackson School Board**. The complaint in this case was filed in November, 1943, and the case came to trial on the merits on September 18, 1944. On September 19, the second day of the trial, the case was discontinued when defendants agreed to eliminate salary differentials and to raise the salary level of all teachers.

Georgia Cases

The city of Atlanta is the only place in Georgia in which, up to the present writing, an equalization case has been filed, and there the going has not been easy. The first action brought against the Atlanta School Board, filed on February 17, 1942, in the local Federal Court, under the title **Reeves v. School Board**, was dropped when Reeves, the plaintiff in the case, was dismissed from the school system.

Close upon the dropping of the Reeves case, the suit against the local school board was continued by the filing of an amended complaint on July 5, 1943, under the name of **Davis v. School Board**, with Samuel Davis, another local teacher, as plaintiff. To this amended complaint, the defendants, on July 21, interposed a motion to dismiss, which was overruled on June 29, 1944.

On August 8, 1944, the plaintiffs made a motion to the court that the case be stricken from the jury list. Although defendants put up opposition to this action, in the form of a counter

motion and argument, plaintiff's motion to strike was granted. The case was set for trial on the merits.

Florida Cases

More teachers' salary cases have been prosecuted in Florida than in any other of the southern states. In addition to the Griffin and Gilbert cases filed under the old mandamus proceedings, six other cases were filed in federal courts in Florida. These cases included: *McDaniel v. Escambia County Board of Public Instruction*, *Turner v. Hillsborough County Board of Public Instruction*, *White v. Duval County Board of Public Instruction*, *Stebbins v. Palm Beach County Board of Public Instruction*, *Starke v. Marion County Board of Public Instruction*.

The complaint in the *McDaniels* case was filed on April 11, 1941, after the local school board had denied a petition for equalization. Soon after the filing of the complaint defendants made a motion to the court to dismiss the complaint, which motion was subsequently overruled and defendants required to answer.

After answering, the defendants began negotiations to settle the case, and agreement was subsequently reached whereby the school board agreed that if plaintiff would withdraw his complaint, equalization of the salaries of Negro teachers would be effected by 1943. The suit was discontinued, and on March 21, 1943, the agreement of the school board was embodied in a consent decree.

The *Turner* case, filed in 1943, was decided against the plaintiffs when the court found that the board had adopted, after the filing of the action, a salary schedule which, in its opinion, was not discriminatory.

The *White* and the *Stebbins* cases were filed in 1941. After the overruling of motions to dismiss made in both cases, the respective school boards agreed to equalize salaries; following this action, the suits were dropped.

While preparation was being made to file a complaint against the local school board in the *Starke* case, which had denied the Negro teachers' petition requesting the elimination of a salary schedule under which Negro teachers received a maximum of \$85 per month and whites a minimum of \$105.50 per month, although each performed the same duties, the school board contacted the local teachers' association and agreed to equalize salaries according to a plan proposed by the teachers.

The *Reynolds* case is the last of the Florida cases to date. (This case was not an NAACP case, i.e. NAACP lawyers did not handle the case; it is included to complete the picture of teachers' salary litigation.) The complaint in the case was filed on February 17, 1942. In 1944 the court handed down a decision in favor of the defendant, upon the ground that the facts in the case did not reveal any discrimination which could be based solely on race.

The decision of the District Court was subsequently upheld by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which rendered its decision on April 23, 1945. The theory expounded in the *Reynolds* case seems somewhat unsound, for, as the Circuit Court of Appeals found in the *Susie Morris* case, unbridled discretion in the application of a "rating system" may effectively be used to cover up discrimination in salary payments based in reality upon race.

It is an interesting side light that in each of these Florida cases the Florida Education Association, an association of white teachers in Florida, attempted to intervene as a party defendant to assist in the defense of the discriminatory practices of the respective school boards. In each instance, upon the objection of plaintiffs, its motion to intervene was denied upon the ground that it had no legal interest in the matter, although the association had alleged that payment of increased salaries to Negro teachers would ad-

versely affect the salaries of white teachers.

When denied the right to intervene in the *Starke* case, the white association appealed to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which sustained the ruling of the District Court, stating in addition that the association had no right to delay the case.

Alabama Case

The case of *Bolden v. Birmingham School Board* represents the only case prosecuted in Alabama up to this point. The complaint in the case was filed on March 27, 1942, and, following the overruling of the defendants' motion to dismiss, was scheduled to come to trial in 1945, after a lapse of over two years. Prior to the date set for trial of the case on the merits, however, defendants agreed to settle the case out of court. The settlement was effected on April 26, 1945.

Arkansas Case

The case of *Susie Morris v. Little Rock School Board*, the only case thus far in Arkansas, is probably rivaled in importance and scope only by the *Alston* case in Virginia. The case was begun by complaint filed in the Federal District Court on February 28, 1942. On January 1, 1944, the court handed down a decision for the defendant board, from which an appeal was taken to the Circuit Court of Appeals.⁴

The case on appeal was argued on May 7, 1945. On June 19, 1945, the Circuit Court of Appeals rendered a decision reversing the decision of the District Court and ordering the latter court to grant the relief requested. The court said:

Under 8 U.S.C.A. §43, the court has power in equity to redress any

citizen deprived of "any rights, privileges, or immunities secured by the Constitution" under "color of any . . . custom, or usage, or any state or territory." As shown supra the custom or usage of defendants of discriminating against the colored teachers of Little Rock in respect of salaries solely on account of race or color violates plaintiffs' rights secured by the 14th Amendment to the Constitution. There is no doubt that relief by injunction is a proper remedy against such custom or usage. . . . The judgment dismissing the complaint is reversed. The case is remanded to the district court with directions to enter forthwith the declaratory judgment prayed for, reserving jurisdiction to enter such further orders as may be required to make the judgment effective.

The *Susie Morris* case is of chief importance for the fact that for the first time the use of a "rating system" for the purpose of discriminating in the payment of teachers' salaries was outlawed. The practice declared illegal theretofore was based upon discriminating "salary schedules." This case was in court for a period of more than three years. It involved voluminous records and pleadings, and its cost ran into thousands of dollars.

Missouri Case

The case of *Lee v. Festus Board of Education* represents the only case brought in Missouri to date. The action was begun by a complaint filed on June 16, 1943, and ended when a consent decree was signed on August 14, 1943, containing a resolution of the board providing for immediate equalization.

Texas Case

Page v. Dallas School Board, filed in December, 1942, also ended in consent decree. The decree was entered

⁴ Following the decision of the district court, the plaintiff, *Susie Morris*, was dismissed from the school system. However, timely intervention by Frances Hibbler, another local teacher, whose motion for leave to intervene was granted, preserved the case for purposes of appeal.

February 25, 1943, and provided for complete equalization by September, 1943, with 15 percent of the differential payable March, 1943; 25 percent September, 1943, and 30 percent in 1944.

South Carolina Cases

Duval v. Charleston School Board and Thompson v. Richland City School Board comprise the South Carolina phase of the campaign, both decisions ending favorably for the plaintiffs, one by consent decree and the other by decision of the court. The complaint in the Duval case was filed on November 10, 1943, and the case tried February 10, 1944. On February 14, 1944, defendants by consent decree agreed to equalize salaries completely by September, 1946, with one half of the differential to be paid in September, 1944.

The Thompson case was filed on February 6, 1945,⁵ following denial of petition filed by local teachers. The trial of the case on the merits was held on May 9, 1945, and on May 26, Judge J. Waties Waring of the local Federal District Court rendered a decision for plaintiff. The operative effect of the decree was postponed until April 1, 1946, provided the salaries fixed for the school year 1945-1946 be retroactive to September, 1945.

Illinois Case

The last of the procession of teachers' salary cases is **Negro City Teachers Association v. Cairo School Board**, in Illinois. The complaint was filed in the United States District Court

in February, 1945. On April 9, the court overruled defendants' motion to dismiss, and on April 26, the plaintiff filed a motion to the court to strike the case from the jury list. This case is still pending, however, and an early trial of the case on the merits is expected.

[Editor's Note: In October, 1945, Federal Judge Fred L. Wham of the United States District Court of the Eastern District ordered the Cairo School Board to equalize the pay of Negro and white teachers in the same classifications. On the question of back pay, the board indicated that it would be willing to settle the matter satisfactorily out of court. The teachers asked a total of \$110,000 in delinquent wages, covering a period of ten years.]

Conclusion

The writing of a historical sketch of NAACP teachers' salary cases at this time by no means indicates that the campaign for equalization has come to an end. On the other hand, while the cases already won have resulted in an increase in salary for Negro teachers amounting to millions of dollars annually, much yet remains to be done. There are many impediments which prevent the removal of salary discriminations by a single sweep.

First of all, because of legal technicalities, it is necessary to bring separate suits in each city or county in each state in which discrimination is found. While court victories won in neighboring cities or counties in a state may be of considerable weight, i.e. evidence of a changed public policy, such victories are not binding in suits brought in other cities or counties in the same state. Thus, if there are, for example, one hundred cities or counties in a state which discriminate in the payment of teachers' salaries, one hundred separate suits may be required to remedy such situations.

Actually, however, as happened in Maryland, and also in other states, the fight is aided by the fact that many

⁵ During the period between the Duval and Thompson cases, the South Carolina Legislature passed a statute (March 18, 1944) purporting to repeal existing laws which effected discrimination in the payment of teachers' salaries and prescribing the procedure to be followed by teachers who complained of salary discriminations. This latter move was apparently intended to delay application for relief to federal courts by requiring complainants to follow first the elaborate appeal procedure set up by the statute. Despite the passage of the act, the Thompson case was brought in the local federal court and won.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' SALARY CASES

As of September, 1945

No.	Title of Case	Year Complaint Filed	City or County	State	Disposition
1.	<i>Wm. Gibbs v. Bd. of Education</i>	1936	Montgomery	Md.	Consent Decree—1936
2.	<i>Elia. Brown v. Bd. of Education</i>	1937	Calvert	Md.	Consent Decree—1937
3.	<i>N. W. Griffin v. School Board</i>	1937	Ocala	Fla.	Lost
4.	<i>Evelyn E. Cook v. Bd. of Education</i>	1938	Prince George	Md.	Consent Decree
5.	<i>John Gilbert v. School Board</i>	1938	Brevard	Fla.	Consent Decree
6.	<i>Walter Mills v. Lowndes et al.</i>	1938	Anne Arundel	Md.	Lost
7.	<i>Walter Mills v. Bd. of Education</i>	1939	Anne Arundel	Md.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1939
8.	<i>Aline Black v. School Board</i>	1939	Norfolk	Va.	Lost
9.	<i>Melvin Alston v. School Board</i>	1939	Norfolk	Va.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1940
10.	<i>Valla D. Abbington v. School Board</i>	1940	Louisville	Ky.	Consent Decree
11.	<i>Antoinette Bowler v. School Board</i>	1941	Richmond	Va.	Consent Decree—1942
12.	<i>Dorothy Roles v. School Board</i>	1941	Newport News	Va.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1943
13.	<i>Clarence Robinson v. School Board</i>	1941	Chattanooga	Tenn.	Consent Decree
14.	<i>Harold Thomas v. Hibbits, et al.</i>	1941	Nashville	Tenn.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1942
15.	<i>Vernon McDaniel v. Bd. of Pub. Instr.</i>	1941	Escambia	Fla.	Consent Decree—1942
16.	<i>Hilda Turner v. Bd. of Pub. Instr.</i>	1941	Hillsborough	Fla.	Lost
17.	<i>Mary B. White v. Bd. of Pub. Instr.</i>	1941	Duval	Fla.	Consent Decree
18.	<i>Chas. Stebbins v. Bd. of Pub. Instr.</i>	1941	Palm Beach	Fla.	Consent Decree—1943
19.	<i>Geo. H. Starke v. Bd. of Pub. Instr.</i>	Never filed	Marion	Fla.	Consent Decree—1941
20.	<i>Jos. McKelpin v. School Board</i>	1942	New Orleans	La.	Consent Decree
21.	<i>Wm. Bolden v. School Board</i>	1942	Birmingham	Ala.	Consent Decree—1945
22.	<i>Suste Morris v. School Board</i>	1942	Little Rock	Ark.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1945
23.	<i>Wm. H. Reeves v. School Board</i>	1942	Atlanta	Ga.	Case Dropped
24.	<i>Samuel Davis v. School Board</i>	1943	Atlanta	Ga.	Pending
25.	<i>Emma J. Lee v. Bd. of Education</i>	1943	Festus	Mo.	Consent Decree—1943
26.	<i>Thelma Page v. School Board</i>	1943	Dallas	Tex.	Consent Decree—1943
27.	<i>Viola L. Duval v. School Board</i>	1943	Charleston	S.C.	Consent Decree—1943
28.	<i>Jackson Colored Teach. Assn. v. School Board</i>	1943	Jackson	Tenn.	Consent Decree—1944
29.	<i>Wiley B. McMillon v. School Board</i>	1943	Iberville	La.	Pending
30.	<i>Eula M. Lee v. School Board</i>	1943	Jefferson	La.	Pending
31.	<i>Albert Thompson v. School Board</i>	1945	Richland	S.C.	Court Decree (Pltf.)—1945
32.	<i>Negro City Teachers' Assn. v. Nihell, et al.</i>	1945	Cairo	Ill.	Pending

SUMMARY

Total Cases to Date.....	32	Cases Lost	4
Cases Won		Cases Dropped (Pltf. Dismissed)	1
Consent Decrees	17	Cases Now Pending	4
Court Decisions	6		
	23		

local school boards, recognizing that their setup does not differ materially from one which existed in a city or county in which a victory was won, voluntarily abandon their discriminatory practices.

Also, inasmuch as the present procedure is to sue in federal rather than state courts, the fact that the theory expressed in a case won in a federal court (which has jurisdiction over a wider area in a state than state courts of first instance) is likely to be followed in subsequent cases, makes the task somewhat lighter.

In addition to the foregoing handicap, the bitter opposition generally interposed by school authorities in teachers' salary suits has made it extremely important that all actions brought be well planned and well timed. In the cases prosecuted thus far, intimidation,

chicanery, and trickery of almost every form have been encountered.

Teachers who joined in such suits or became affiliated with anti-salary-discrimination efforts were discharged without cause; associations of white teachers, as in Florida, have sought to impede efforts; school officials frequently refused to permit counsel for teachers to inspect records, etc.

Despite these countervailing forces the battle for equalization has gone forward. However, this opposition making necessary, as was previously stated, a well-planned campaign has, due to the small staff of lawyers which comprise the association's legal department, narrowed the front on which they can proceed at any single period of time. It has necessitated the restricted sphere of operation evidenced by the cases to date.

STATE-SUPPORTED UNIVERSITY CASES

The fight launched by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People a little more than a decade ago to compel state-supported institutions of higher education to admit Negroes to courses that are not supplied in the state-controlled schools for Negroes was continued during the past few years.

In only one case since the campaign began has it been successful in opening up a formerly "white" state university to Negro students. That was the case of Donald Murray v. the University of Maryland, which came to a conclusion in 1935. Murray sued the university, demanding admission to its law schools, having been denied registration by school officials. Race or color was not mentioned in the suit, the plaintiff complaining that he was an American citizen and had been denied his constitutional rights.

The case was won in the lower courts and subsequently upheld by the state's court of appeals. Murray entered the law school and completed his course in 1938. Since that time, six

other Negroes have entered the university and two have graduated. Three are now in attendance (Mar., 1946). Two Negroes had graduated from the university's law school in 1889, but none had entered since that time until Murray was admitted.

In a few other instances where suits were prosecuted against university officials and state school boards to compel the admittance of Negroes to certain courses which were not offered in the Negro schools, the suits, although lost by Negroes, caused school boards in most instances to establish the courses sought in the Negro state universities.

This was true in the cases of Lucille Bluford v. School of Journalism, University of Missouri, Charles Eubanks v. School of Engineering of the University of Kentucky, and Michael et al. v. University of Tennessee.

In these instances, however, the NAACP has not been satisfied that the courses set up in the Negro schools have been equal in facilities and con-

tent to those in the white schools, and some of the cases were continued on these grounds.

One case of this sort received a favorable decision by the United States Supreme Court, but its results were mitigated because the plaintiff mysteriously disappeared after the opinion was given and has not been located since that time.

In this case, **Lloyd Gaines v. University of Missouri**, the Supreme Court held, in December, 1938, that the university could not bar a person on the ground of color or race, and further, that states must provide equal educational facilities within their boundaries. This ruled out the practice of granting out-of-state scholarships to Negroes by southern state boards in an effort to equalize educational opportunities, although this practice is still followed.

The suit, however, had its benefits. It was the main basis upon which some state school boards set up courses not heretofore supplied in Negro schools of higher education.

By December, 1941, according to a survey by the *Southern Frontier* (organ of the Commission on Interracial Co-operation, with headquarters in Atlanta), Arkansas, Oklahoma, Maryland, and Texas had provided scholarship funds to supplement the cost to Negroes leaving the state for graduate study in northern schools; Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Tennessee had done nothing. Missouri set up a law school and a school of journalism at Lincoln University, its Negro school, and North Carolina set up a school of law at the North Carolina State University for Negroes at Durham.

Since that survey was made, the Tennessee board of education voted to establish professional courses in the State College for Negroes at Nashville; Alabama voted, in 1945, to allocate \$25,000 for out-of-state scholarships for Negroes and some of the

other states have taken further action.

In a further effort to circumvent the Supreme Court's ruling in the Gaines case, the Southern Governors Conference, at its meeting in New Orleans, in December, 1945, approved a proposal for southern regional colleges for Negroes based on the report of the conference committee on regional education, headed by Governor Chauncey Sparks of Alabama.

The report recommended that study be given to the possibility of exchange of students within the area, on the basis of subsidization or of "state treaties," to meet deficiencies in the higher educational opportunities for both white and Negro students.

It was recommended that there be a study by the education authorities of all southern states of the facilities in their own states, and co-operation in a long-range plan for regional developments. This would take the form, perhaps, among other developments, of a school of dentistry in one state, one of pharmacy in another, of forestry in a third, of law in a fourth, of chemical engineering in a fifth, of education in still another, etc.

Mutual contracts would then be made between the states, the report suggested, for an exchange of students on a basis upon which the cost to a student of going to another state for his education would be no greater than in his own home state. This would involve equalization of fees, tuition, and payment of travel and subsistence by the state sufficient to equalize living costs.

This plan was generally opposed by southern Negro leaders.

Bluford v. University of Missouri

The suit of Lucille Bluford of Kansas City against the University of Missouri to compel her admission to the graduate school of journalism, which was entered in 1939, was adjudged moot in 1942 when the university discontinued its graduate school

of journalism. During the litigation the state school board set up a school of journalism at Lincoln University, the Negro state-supported school.

During 1940 the lower court ruled against Miss Bluford. She appealed her mandamus suit to the state supreme court, which affirmed the lower court's ruling in July, 1941, placing stress on the fact that Miss Bluford had not requested Lincoln University to establish a school of journalism.

"If upon proper demand, and after a reasonable time," the supreme court stated, "the desired course is not available at Lincoln University, appellant will be entitled to take the course at Missouri University."

A new bill was filed against the white university in December, 1941. Meanwhile a school of journalism was set up at Lincoln, and on February 1, 1942, Missouri University discontinued its graduate school of journalism. The lower court again decided against Miss Bluford in April, 1942. She then renewed her application to the white university, stipulating that it was a standing application, and she also applied to Lincoln University to enter its graduate course in journalism.

The school of journalism, and the one in law which had been established at about the same time at Lincoln University, ran for one year. Due to exhaustion of funds and scarcity of students, the state board decided to close both schools at the end of 1943.

Immediately after this announcement Edith Louise Massey of Kansas City, a senior in the school of journalism at Lincoln, applied for entry at the University of Missouri. This resulted in a reversal of the board's plan to close the Lincoln school. It then decided to keep it open by sending five of the Missouri University instructors to teach the handful of Negro students at Lincoln, upon an agreement reached by the curators of the two universities.

The state legislature, which had refused appropriations for the two

schools at Lincoln for the previous year, voted in March, 1944, to appropriate \$14,000 for the schools for the ensuing year. It also voted to remove the state's constitutional provision for separate schools for Negroes, but later voted, by a narrow margin, to continue the segregated schools "as a general educational policy subject to possible changes in specific instances."

On September 18, 1945, the schools of university and law reopened at Lincoln, with a Negro staff of instructors. Meantime students and school instructors, both white and Negro, took up the fight against the refusal of Missouri University to admit Negroes. Following a series of meetings of the Interracial Educational Council, a student organization, at the home of a Missouri University professor, a poll was conducted by the council among the white students at the latter school on the matter in February, 1945. They favored the admittance of Negroes by a vote of 362 to 252.

Subsequently, four white professors who took part in the poll were dismissed from the faculty of Missouri University. A petition was signed protesting their dismissal by approximately 1000 students, but the president of the university, Dr. Frederick Middlebrush, refused to rescind his action, denying that they were dismissed for their liberal views.

Eubanks v. University of Kentucky

Charles Eubanks of Louisville, Ky., entered suit against the University of Kentucky (white) in October, 1941, to compel the school to admit him to its school of engineering, since no course in this subject was available to Negroes in the state university for Negroes.

While the case was pending the state board of education voted to establish a two-year undergraduate course in engineering at the Kentucky State College for Negroes. In January, 1943, the University of Kentucky filed an an-

swer to Eubanks's petition, stating that he could obtain the desired course at the Negro college.

In April, 1943, Eubanks sought to file an amended petition in the Federal District Court asking damages of \$5000 caused by his absence from school for a year in view of the refusal of the white school to admit him, and denying that the two-year course established at the Negro school was equivalent to the four-year one at the white school.

The court extended to the white university time to file a brief on the amended bill. The case dragged along until January, 1945, when the court dismissed the petition on the grounds that the plaintiff failed to prosecute the case during two consecutive terms of court.

Michael et al. v. University of Tennessee

In October, 1939, a suit was filed against the University of Tennessee (white) by Joseph M. Michael and five others to compel admission to the professional school. The university answered with a demurrer, which was argued in chancery court in July, 1940. Decision was delayed for more than a year.

Meanwhile the state legislature voted to provide professional training at the State College for Negroes in Nashville, and in December, 1941, the court ruled that the case was moot. It was appealed, and in December, 1942, the Tennessee Supreme Court upheld the lower court's ruling. The plaintiff contended that the provisions for the professional schools at the Negro university had been made only on paper.

OTHER SCHOOL CASES

Trenton, N.J., Case

In September, 1943, two mothers filed suit against the board of education in Trenton, N.J., to compel the admission of their children to Junior High School, No. 2, where the student body was entirely white. They were Mrs. Gladys Hedgepeth and Mrs. Berline Williams. Their children had been attending an all-Negro school, New Lincoln Junior High School, which was farther from their home than the No. 2 school.

In February, 1944, the state Supreme Court ruled in favor of the mothers, holding that there had been discrimination against the Negro children.

Following this ruling the board of education in Trenton took steps to remove all practices that approached racial discrimination from the public schools. By August, 1945, faculties of the schools which were formerly all white were integrated with Negro teachers. The name of the New Lincoln Junior High School was changed to Junior High School No. 5. Negro pupils were freely admitted to all

junior high schools, where discrimination had been the most apparent.

Davis Case, Washington, D.C.

In the District of Columbia where separate public schools are maintained for white and colored pupils, John P. Davis, on behalf of his five-year-old son, Michael, filed suit in February, 1944, against the board of education demanding that it admit his son to the Noyes School, the nearest to his home, where only white students were permitted to attend.

Mr. Davis, who lives in Brookland, a suburb, contended that his son was discriminated against, in that he had to walk seventeen blocks to reach the only colored school in the area, and cross several arterial highways, or travel by a circuitous bus route of six miles. He argued further that either he or his wife had to accompany the child to school and call for him when school closed.

In its answer to his petition, the board of education replied, in August, 1944, that there was no claim upon

which relief could be granted, since the board is an unincorporated agency of the District, whose members constitute no entity separate from the District of Columbia. It stated further that Congress had already appropriated \$40,000 for the erection of an expandable elementary school in the vicinity of Mr. Davis's home.

The board contended that the law of the District of Columbia requires the school board to provide separate schools for white and colored children and stated that the Court of Appeals had upheld the segregated school system in 1910.

Counsel for Davis argued that separate schools in the District are not demanded by any specific act of Congress, but are merely permissive under the act, which declares that there must be a fair expenditure of funds for the education of white and Negro children. Whether separate schools are constitutional in federal territory has not been decided by the courts.

In November, while the case was still pending, the school board announced its intention to construct a temporary building across the street from the Davises' home and on December 1, 1944, eight days before the case was to come up for trial, the new school was opened and Michael Davis was entered. The court, on December 8, dismissed the case without prejudice to the plaintiff's bringing it again, should the school be removed. Counsel for the school board privately agreed to pay the costs of court.

Mansfield Elementary School

In October, 1945, a campaign was begun to abolish segregated elementary schools in Mansfield, O., which had been in operation for the past twenty years. Jack D. Middleford took the lead by entering a suit against the local board in behalf of his two children who attended the all-Negro Bowman school. He filed a writ of mandamus to compel school authorities to abolish the segregated system and permit his

children and other Negroes to attend other schools except those then set aside for them.

He was supported by the Future Outlook League, which by earlier agitation had succeeded in obtaining a promise from the school board to abolish the segregated system within three years.

In January, 1946, the Fifth Judicial Circuit Court of Appeals of Ohio decreed that on and after the close of the 1945-1946 school year, all separate instruction of colored students be discontinued. The school board had argued that no charges of inferior or defective training of Negro pupils had been made, and that school officials were empowered to provide education for pupils in the best way they saw fit.

Following this victory, plans were made by the League to prosecute similar cases in other Ohio cities where separate schools were maintained, namely: Xenia, Chagrin Falls, Dayton, Oxford, Middletown, and Columbus.

Independence High School

J. W. Briscoe of Independence, Mo., filed suit against the school board in August, 1944, to compel it to give Negro children in attendance at Young High School educational opportunities equal to those supplied to white children attending the Christman High School.

He argued that the students completing the courses at the Young School were compelled to enter college with conditions because they could obtain only thirteen and three quarters units of study while the white students were given fifty-five and one half units. He pointed out that both schools were classified as *A* high schools, despite the inadequacy of the courses at the Young School.

In November, 1944, the Circuit Court ordered the school board to equalize the courses at the two high schools. Following this ruling, the board closed the Young School and paid the tuition and transportation of Negro students

to attend the high school in Kansas City. The three Negro teachers at the Young School were subsequently dismissed.

Gary School Strike

In Gary, Ind., home of the United States Steel mill, on September 18, 1945, one thousand white students walked out of the Froebel, Tolleston, and Horace Mann high schools in protest against Negroes attending the Froebel school. Approximately 850 Negroes and 1500 whites attended the Froebel school, while only whites attended the other two schools. Many of the parents of the striking pupils supported them and the press reported that subversive groups had fomented the strike in order to foster racial strife among the steel workers.

The strike was alleged to have been precipitated, according to the white pupils, by a fight between a colored and a white student at an inter-high school football game during the previous week.

Seven days after the strike began, the white students went back to their classes following a directive issued by the school superintendent, Charles D. Lutz, which stated that unless the students went back to their classes they would not have the opportunity of presenting their grievances to the school board.

The next week three educators, engaged by a Gary citizens' committee, came to the city to make its investigation of the situation and of the charge made by the pupils against Richard A. Nuzum, white principal of the Froebel School, that he was a poor disciplinarian. Two of the educators were from the faculty of Northwestern University and one was from Ohio State University.

The investigators later recommended that Gary's schools should be unsegregated and the board accepted their recommendation. The students walked out again. By this time the nation was aroused over the matter. Several out-

standing persons went to Gary to address the students and citizens, among them Frank Sinatra, a famous singer frequently referred to as the "idol of teen-agers." He addressed the students at the city auditorium and received a warm and hearty reception. His pleas were of little avail, however, for the strike continued.

After six weeks of the walkout, the students were persuaded to return to school by a promise of school authorities that "justice would be done," and by threats to penalize the strikers under the truancy laws.

The Gary and Chicago Civil Liberties Committees later conducted an investigation of the strike and reported that it was timed to coincide with the demands of the steel workers' union for a \$2 a day pay increase, and that it was designed by subversive groups to break the unity of the Negro and white steel workers. The committee recommended that the school board abolish its practices of assigning Negroes to certain schools outside of their zone of residence in an effort to establish segregation.

(The Roosevelt High School in Gary is attended wholly by Negro pupils and staffed by a Negro faculty, including the principal.)

The committee also recommended the removal of discriminatory practices against the Negro students in attendance at Froebel, the removal from the schools of textbooks which had offensive passages concerning racial groups, and the installation of a general democratic program of education.

[EDITOR'S NOTE. When the Gary school opened for the 1946 fall term the school board announced that discrimination would not be countenanced.]

Chicago School Strikes

About a week after the Gary school strike had begun, white high school students in several schools of Chicago attempted to carry out similar action. At Morgan Park High School white students signed a petition demanding that the local school board send Negro

pupils to a separate school. They attempted a walkout, but were dissuaded from continuing the strike by progressive white persons.

About 150 pupils at the Englewood High School tried the same action. Students at the Calumet High School followed suit. Eleven of them were arrested. With the quick action of school officials, citizens, and the mayor, the strikes were quelled before a week had passed.

Within a week or two afterward the Illinois legislature passed, and the governor signed, a bill abolishing segregation in all Illinois schools. Heretofore the law against segregation applied only to cities in the state which had a population of 500,000 or more.

New York High School Conflict

In the wake of the Gary strike, racial outbreaks occurred at the Benjamin Franklin High School in the lower Harlem section of New York. The matter was said to have been fomented by certain white daily papers in New York, who exaggerated the conflict alleged to have occurred between white and Negro students at the school, calling it a riot. Because of press reports parents were afraid to send their children to school.

The Mayor's Committee on Unity later reported, after its investigation, that the incident had its inception on September 27 when a Negro and a white boy had a dispute over a basketball game in the school's gymnasium, with the white boy telling the Negro boy that he would "see" him after school. News spread that a fight would take place.

When school closed a group of Negro boys boarding a bus were attacked by a mob of whites, apparently not students at the school. No one was seriously injured. The committee blamed the press for erroneously reporting the incident and fanning the flame of racial prejudice.

The report recommended that additional Negro teachers be placed on the faculty, that some Negro policemen be detailed to duty in the vicinity, and that the teaching personnel be increased. The report also found an "exceptionally high degree of cordial integration of the youth of all races into the total program of the school."

Meanwhile, extra policemen had been placed on guard around the school and students and parents were warned that legal action would be taken if the children remained at home, or if any undue incident occurred. The situation was soon brought back to normal.

EXTRADITION CASES

During the past several years Negroes have gained ground in fighting against the extradition of Negroes who had fled from southern jurisdictions in an effort to escape what they believed to be undue penalties for crimes they were accused of committing, or from mob violence. In many instances northern courts and state governors refused to honor the extradition papers signed by southern authorities, contending that the accused fugitives either had served enough time in penal institutions for the crimes they were alleged to have committed or that they would

not receive fair trials if returned to the southern courts.

Some outstanding cases follow:

Mattox Case, Philadelphia

In July, 1942, seventeen-year-old Thomas Mattox fled from his home in Beaumont, Ga., to Philadelphia, following an altercation with a white man, whom he stabbed with a penknife.

He was later arrested in Philadelphia at the instigation of Georgia authorities who charged him with intent to kill. The governor of Pennsylvania had signed the extradition papers when

Raymond Pace Alexander of Philadelphia became counsel for Mattox.

At a hearing before Judge Clare G. Fenerty of the Common Pleas Court, Mattox contended that he stabbed the man in self-defense and that he feared he would be lynched if returned to Georgia. The court released Mattox on a habeas corpus writ, and Georgia authorities appealed the case.

Following an exchange of communications between Georgia and Pennsylvania authorities in April, 1943, the Pennsylvania State Superior Court upheld the lower court's action, stating in part: "We feel that the prosecuting authorities of the State of Georgia have created a most serious doubt that the life of the accused will be properly safeguarded and that there will be a regular and orderly administration of justice."

Buckhannon Case, Trenton

Sam Buckhannon, 33, was arrested in Newark, N.J., in July, 1943, at the request of Georgia authorities, and held as a fugitive from justice. At a court hearing, testimony revealed that he had escaped from Georgia in 1939, after serving fourteen years of a twenty-two-year sentence for petty larceny. Among other small items he was accused of stealing was a package of cigarettes. The Common Pleas Court of Trenton, N.J., later freed him.

Burrows Case, New York

In April, 1942, George A. Burrows, 38, fled to New York from Gulfport, Miss., following an altercation with two white men over his alleged attention to a white girl. Burrows said that he was accused of offering \$5 to the girl for a kiss. Governor Dewey signed the man's extradition papers and had him returned to Mississippi on the promise of the state authorities that he would receive a fair trial. The man was subsequently tried in the second circuit court of appeals in Mississippi and was exonerated.

Johnson Case, Pittsburgh

Ralph Johnson left Talladega County, Ala., in December, 1943, after having been severely beaten by a group of white men. He went to West Newton, Pa., where police authorities arrested him at the request of the sheriff of Talladega County. He had been charged with assault with intent to murder. He was immediately discharged on a writ of habeas corpus on the ground that the arrest was illegal.

Extradition proceedings were then instituted and a warrant for his extradition was signed by the governor of Pennsylvania. Johnson again sought his release and was released in April, 1944, by the Common Pleas Court. Following his release an indictment under the Fugitive Felon Act was returned by a federal grand jury in Alabama, and Johnson was again arrested in Pittsburgh, Pa., on a fugitive warrant. This indictment was dismissed in February, 1945, at the direction of the Attorney General, Francis Biddle.

This action on the part of Alabama was believed to be the first time that a Negro who had fled a southern state on threat of mob violence and lynching had been sought under the Fugitive Felon Act, passed in 1934.

In calling for dismissal of the indictment, the Attorney General stated that he had instructed all United States attorneys who are requested to obtain a return of a fugitive under the Felon Act, after extradition had been refused, to obtain prior approval by the United States Department of Justice.

Baul Case, St. Louis

In 1938 Andrew Willis Baul escaped from a penitentiary in Parchman, Miss., where he had been sentenced in 1936 to serve five years on a charge of participating in a theft of some \$365 from slot machines. He fled to St. Louis and joined the Navy, serving until July, 1944, when he was honorably discharged.

Returning to St. Louis, he sought

his old job. Mississippi authorities, learning of his whereabouts, ordered his extradition. Governor Donnelly of Missouri refused to extradite him. He stated as his reasons that slot machines were not protected by property rights in Mississippi and were therefore contraband, and that Baul had served his country honorably and had rehabilitated himself as a good citizen in St. Louis.

Bell Case, Indianapolis

William Bell escaped from a Georgia chain gang in 1937, where he was serving a four-year sentence for having stolen a pig valued at \$2.50. He fled to Indianapolis where he lived until Georgia authorities learned of his whereabouts. Testimony before a municipal court judge in Indianapolis revealed that the man had been accused of stealing the pig on the complaint of a plantation owner for whom he had refused to continue to work for sixty cents a day. Bell had a wife and five children.

Municipal Court Judge John L. McNelis sustained a motion by Bell's counsel, in September, 1944, to quash an affidavit charging him with being a fugitive from justice. Later Governor Henry F. Schricker refused to honor the extradition papers and the man was freed.

In his dismissal of the case Judge McNelis said, in part:

The courts and proper administration of justice are the last bulwark of defense between helpless minorities and the oppression often heaped upon them by ruthless elements of the majority. This court will not be a party to upholding the vicious system of peonage as it is carried on in some of the southern states.

Kimbrough Case, Chicago

Lonnie Kimbrough, a fugitive from a Mississippi plantation, was arrested in Chicago on an extradition warrant

in August, 1944. According to his testimony in the federal court, the man said that he had been working for an engineering company in Mississippi, running a bulldozer and earning \$270 a month. In December, 1942, he became involved in a brawl with three men and was sentenced to a term in jail. While serving his time, he said, a white plantation owner visited him and promised to arrange for his freedom if he would work on the plantation.

Kimbrough accepted the offer, was released, and worked on the plantation for a year, being paid only \$42 for his year's work. He escaped and fled to Chicago with his two children. Questioned as to why he had not left the plantation sooner, Kimbrough said that others who had tried to escape had been severely beaten.

He was freed by the court.

Catchings Case, Chicago

John Catchings escaped from Hazelhurst, Miss., in the latter part of 1943, with the aid of two deputy sheriffs and fled to Chicago. Failing to have him returned to the state on an extradition warrant, Mississippi authorities then charged him with violation of the Selective Service Act. He was wanted to face a murder charge.

Weighing all evidence after a hearing in the criminal court, in March, 1944, Judge Francis B. Allegretti issued a stay of extradition while the counsel prepared his defense.

Catchings was freed in August, 1944, by Federal Judge Elwyn Shaw who declared that a murder trial with a Negro as defendant in the state of Mississippi would be a "mockery of justice."

Governor Green had previously signed the extradition papers to return Catchings to Mississippi.

The following story Catchings told on the witness stand was an unusual one. To supplement his meager income from factory work the man, who had a wife and family, engaged in selling illicit liquor with the protection of the

deputy city marshal to whom he paid \$5 a week. Two deputy sheriffs also asked to be paid protection money by Catchings and wanted to arrest him for his refusal.

Catchings sought the aid of the marshal and was told that the police would have to raid his place. He was advised to get rid of all evidence by the time of the raid. Watching the "raid" from a window across the street from his liquor place, Catchings saw the two deputy sheriffs and the marshal become involved in an argument on the outside and later heard shots fired. John Brox, one of the deputies, was killed and later Catchings was sought as the murderer.

The other two officers hid Catchings in Brox's home and brought him food for a year. Finally, when Brox's widow became suspicious, the white officers helped him to escape. One of the three deputies who was sent to Chicago to bring Catchings home was one of those who was reputedly involved in the affair.

The Chicago NAACP conducted the case for Catchings.

Jackson Case, Chicago

Sidney Jackson was arrested in Macon, Ga., in October, 1940, indicted, and sentenced to from four to seven years in the penitentiary for an alleged burglary. On April 6, 1941, he escaped from a chain gang and made his way to Chicago. Georgia authorities learned of his whereabouts and in January, 1944, Governor Green signed his extradition warrant.

Jackson testified in a criminal court that when he was questioned about a burglary by police and attempted to answer, because of his stammering he could not speak quickly enough for the officers, and they beat him and arrested him. They made him sign a paper, he said, which he later learned was a confession. Jackson said further that he had been denied the services of a lawyer at his trial.

In May, 1944, the court freed him.

Dubose Case, Detroit

Following a hearing on a writ of habeas corpus before Judge John J. Maher of the Recorder's Court, Edward Dubose, who fled to Detroit after escaping from Memphis, Tenn., was extradited to Memphis authorities to serve the rest of a five-year sentence on a manslaughter charge.

Testimony revealed that he was arrested in April, 1944, in Memphis and pleaded guilty to the charge of manslaughter. He was sentenced to serve five years at the Shelby County Penal Farm, from whence he had escaped and fled to Detroit.

Allen Case, Detroit

Huddie Allen escaped from Courtland, Ala., in 1943 and fled to Detroit when he learned that he was being hunted by a mob for allegedly assaulting a deputy sheriff. In September, a warrant was issued by Alabama authorities for his arrest on a robbery and assault charge. He was then extradited to Alabama by a federal court.

After two years of litigation Allen was freed by Federal Judge Frank Picard in Alabama. According to court testimony in the case, Allen was on his way home one day in July, 1943, when a white man in plain clothes put a gun in his back. Turning suddenly he managed to seize the gun after it had been discharged twice in the scuffle. The man with whom he fought, he later learned, was a deputy sheriff.

Otis Johnson, New York

Fifteen-year-old Otis Johnson was saved from trial and probable conviction in Dillon County, S.C., in June, 1944, when the Supreme Court in the Bronx, N.Y., freed him on a writ of habeas corpus. The boy, who lives in the Bronx, visited his birthplace in South Carolina in September, 1943, and was attacked with an ax by a white storekeeper when he went to make a purchase. The boy seized the ax and struck the white man with it and im-

mediately caught a northbound bus back to the Bronx.

Governor Dewey had signed extradition papers ordering his return to South Carolina when the court ruled that since he was not sixteen years old at the time of the offense, his act was one of juvenile delinquency, and not assault, as the South Carolina authorities had claimed. It therefore freed him.

Corley Case, New York

James Corley was arrested in Aiken, S.C., in 1928, accused of burglary. He fled to New York, served twenty-three months overseas in the Army, and returned to New York, where he had made his home for the past seventeen years. Following his return from army service, South Carolina authorities issued an extradition warrant for him. Governor Dewey signed the warrant, but in August, 1945, Judge Samuel Null of the New York Supreme Court released him.

Corley's counsel had contended that since three Negroes had been lynched in Aiken two years previously it was likely that he would not receive a fair trial.

Leonard Case, Cleveland

Emmett Leonard, twenty-one, escaped from Greenwood, Miss., to Cleveland when he was sixteen years old, having been convicted of grand larceny, and sentenced to five years in the penitentiary. In March, 1944, Governor John W. Bricker refused to honor extradition papers from Mississippi authorities after hearing the young man's story.

According to his story, as told by his counsel to the governor, young Leonard was driving his white employer's car without permission and wrecked the vehicle in an accident. He was summarily charged with grand

larceny and given the prison sentence.

His counsel pointed out that he had been convicted as a juvenile, had been denied legal representation, and had never been involved with the law except in this one case. He had found work in a Cleveland war plant and had lived an exemplary life since coming to this city.

Powell Case, Newark, N.J.

The case of Herman Powell, which became a *cause célèbre* in the East, began in March, 1941, and was still pending at the end of March, 1946. While driving his car in Wrightsville, Ga., on March 16, 1941, he lost control of it on a muddy road and it skidded into another car, killing a white woman. He was convicted of murder by an all-white jury in the Johnson County Superior Court in June, 1941, and sentenced to life imprisonment. The Georgia Supreme Court upheld his conviction.

He spent a year in the county jail and was permitted to escape by opening the jail door with the key which the jailer had given him. He fled to Newark, N.J., and got a job in a packing plant.

In May, 1944, he was arrested as a fugitive from justice on an extradition warrant and confined to jail in Newark. A hearing was held before Governor Edge of New Jersey, who, in August, 1944, ordered Powell returned to Georgia, although 35,000 residents of New Jersey had signed a petition in his behalf.

During the latter part of August, the Common Pleas Court allowed him a stay of extradition in order for his counsel to apply for a writ of habeas corpus. The writ was denied by the United States District Court and an appeal was taken to the United States Circuit in Philadelphia. The appeal was pending up to March, 1946.

MISCELLANEOUS CASES

Constitution Hall Case

The Daughters of the American Revolution refused to permit Hazel Scott, pianist and wife of Congressman Adam Clayton Powell, to use Constitution Hall in Washington, D.C., for a concert on October 20, 1945, because she is a Negro. The D.A.R. had refused to permit Marian Anderson and Roland Hayes, other Negro artists, to use the hall, which is owned by the organization, for a similar purpose in previous years.

They based their refusal on the grounds that a regulation passed by the National Board in 1932 grants permission for use of the hall to white artists only.

Despite requests from congressmen, organizations, and individuals, both white and Negro, the national board of management and the executive committee of the D.A.R. voted unanimously to uphold its board of management at its anniversary meeting held the week after Miss Scott was notified of the refusal. The board stated that its rule had been made in accordance with the prevailing racial pattern of the District of Columbia.

The incident was debated pro and con on the floor of Congress several times, with southern Democrats agreeing with the D.A.R.'s stand and a few northern congressmen, especially those from New York, condemning the practice of the D.A.R. Representative Clare Boothe Luce (R., Conn.), sent a telegram to the Greenwich Chapter of the D.A.R. of which she was a member, urging it to adopt a resolution opposing the action of the national board. Her request was later denied, and she forthwith resigned from the chapter.

In reply to a telegram from Congressman Powell (D., New York) President Harry S. Truman said, in part:

One of the marks of a democracy is its willingness to respect and reward talent without regard to race or origin. We have just brought to a successful conclusion a war against totalitarian countries which make racial discrimination their state policy. I am sure that you will realize, however, the impossibility of any interference by me in the management or policy of a private enterprise such as the one in question.

Meanwhile, Mrs. Truman, who had been invited to attend a tea given by the D.A.R., turned down the congressman's suggestion that she not attend the tea, stating that it would be improper to cancel it. Newspaper reports quoted the President's wife as saying, when she was asked by a reporter if she would attend the tea, "Why not?"

In her letter to Congressman Powell, Mrs. Truman said that the invitation was extended and accepted prior to "the unfortunate controversy which has arisen for which I am in no way responsible. . . . I deplore any action which denies artistic talent an opportunity to express itself because of prejudice against race or origin."

Negroes became incensed over what they considered lack of action on the part of the President and downright rebuff by his wife. Miss Scott declared that Mrs. Truman's presence at the tea sanctioned the D.A.R.'s action against her. Congressman Powell and others urged New York congressmen to introduce bills proposing the removal of tax exemption provisions on Constitution Hall.

They contended that since the organization was declared by the President to be a private enterprise, and was not compelled to serve the public, it should have to pay property taxes. They contended further that the D.A.R. should be prohibited from hav-

ing its annual reports printed at government expense as it has been doing for the past forty-seven years.

Three bills were subsequently introduced in the House of Representatives with the provisions called for above, but none of them were brought to the floor. They were introduced by Emmanuel Seller, Democrat, and Vito Marcantonio, American Labor Party, both of New York, and Helen Gahagan Douglas, Democrat, of California.

Baltimore Library Case

Miss Louise Kerr in 1943 was denied admission to a training course at the Enoch Pratt Free Public Library in Baltimore, Md., because she was a Negro. Under the direction and counsel of the local branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, she sued the library and the city, contending that her constitutional rights had been denied her. She also asked for damages and a permanent injunction against the refusal of her application.

In March, 1944, Judge Calvin Chesnut of the federal court ruled against Miss Kerr. He upheld the library's contention that it was controlled by a private corporation and that the city had no legal authority over it. He also concurred in the library's defense that since there were no openings for Negroes in the city system in positions for which the course trained students, there was no need to admit Negroes to the course.

The decision was appealed and in April, 1945, the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in Richmond reversed the federal court's decision and remanded the case for further proceedings. This court held that the library is a public institution, supported by public funds, and that since the establishment of the training course it had turned down the applications of 200 Negroes.

The library and city officials appealed this decision to the United States Supreme Court, which, in Oc-

tober, 1945, upheld the circuit court's decision. Because it was established that the trustees of the library acted by policy rather than with malicious intent, no monetary grant was considered in any of the court decisions. The case was argued for the plaintiffs before the Supreme Court by Charles H. Houston of Washington, and W. A. C. Hughes, Jr., of Baltimore.

Buffalo Hospital Case

On an urgent call for a trained nurse at the Buffalo General Hospital during an infantile paralysis epidemic in December, 1944, Miss Iva Wallace, a registered nurse, of Brooklyn, N.Y., was referred by the State Department of Health to apply for the position. She wrote to the hospital and received a reply telling her to report for duty and fill out her application after arrival.

When the nurse reported to the hospital, she was at first assigned to a nurses' room with white nurses. Then later she was transferred to an empty ward that was in repair to spend the night. The next morning she was served breakfast in her ward instead of being permitted to eat in the nurses' dining room. She was then told that the hospital did not hire Negro nurses and was asked to turn in her expense account.

Miss Wallace subsequently sued the hospital for \$50,000 damages, charging that it had refused to employ her because of her race.

In May, 1945, her suit was dismissed by Supreme Court Judge R. Foster, who stated that her complaint was not covered by the state civil rights law and that her bill of particulars failed to show in what manner she was damaged. (The New York law against discrimination in employment, commonly called the FEPC bill, had not been adopted at that time.)

AAU Case, Washington

Because they were denied entrance in the Amateur Athletic Union's box-

ing tournament sponsored by the *Washington Post* and sanctioned by the Washington, D.C., branch of the AAU, five Negro boys entered suit against the local AAU in March, 1945. The boys contended that the winners of the local event could not be called true champions because Negroes are barred from the competition, and that by being barred from the local competition they were denied competition in the national events, although they are members of the AAU in good standing.

The Washington branch of the AAU has a clause in its ritual barring "mixed racial competition in exhibitions of any sport" under its jurisdiction. The plaintiffs were Willie Farrell, Edward William Banks, Henry David Porter, John Jones, and Robert Elkerson. The local branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People conducted the suit for the plaintiffs.

Justice Matthew F. McGuire of the District Court, in April, 1945, dismissed the suit, ruling that the AAU had a right to conduct its events by its own regulations and that there was no justifiable controversy. The decision was appealed, and in February, 1946, the United States Circuit Court of Appeals reversed the decision of the lower court, ruling that the members of the AAU in good standing "are clearly entitled to relief and protection."

The opinion stated, in part:

Appellees' contention, implicit although not expressed, that the constitution, by-laws and regulations of the unions are no part of the contract between plaintiffs and the unions, is beside the point and is also without merit. Members in good standing whose rights are invaded by an *ultra vires* act of a committee of the organization are clearly entitled to relief and protection. . . .

On the record as it now stands, the only questions are whether the

complaint and the affidavit show that there are genuine issues of material facts and whether the complaint, if proved as averred, states a claim for which relief can be granted. In our view the answers to both questions are affirmative.

Washington Hospital Case

A suit to stop federal condemnation of a city square in Washington, D.C., for a new hospital for George Washington University, which was to serve white patrons only, was instituted in November, 1944, by four Negro property owners in the condemned area. They contended that the government had no right to condemn property for the construction of a public hospital which discriminated against citizens because of race.

Arrangements of the condemnation and construction of the hospital for the university provided for the government to construct the hospital and lease it to the university.

Replying to the complaint, the Justice Department's attorney said that the university was not a party to the suit, so the question of discrimination could not legally enter the case. He declared that the Supreme Court had held that the right of eminent domain could be employed, even though a property condemned would not be available to the entire population or even a large part of it.

The suit was dismissed in December, 1944, by the district court.

Mansfield Swimming Pool Case

In August, 1944, eight Negroes of Mansfield, O., filed civil damage suits totaling \$4000 for having been refused the use of a municipally-owned and a privately-owned swimming pool. The city was named defendant in seven of the suits, each asking \$500 damage.

In November, 1945, trial was held on the case of Jack D. Middlebrook against the city for refusing him the privilege of swimming in the Liberty

Park Swimming Pool because of his color. Although the defense attorney questioned no witnesses and at no time attempted to discredit the testimony of the plaintiff's witnesses, the all-white jury brought in a verdict of not guilty. Attorneys for Mr. Middlebrook announced that they would appeal the decision.

Columbus Café Case

Chester K. Gillespie, Negro member of the Ohio House of Representatives, received a settlement in a civil suit against Marzetti's restaurant in Columbus, O., when the court ruled in October, 1944, that the restaurant had violated the state's civil rights law. The defense had argued that the law took away property rights of citizens because it invaded the rights of freedom of contract.

Dayton Drugstore Case

In July, 1944, Wade J. Buyyden filed a criminal suit against the manager of the Gallagher Drugstore in Dayton, O., for having refused to serve him a cup of coffee. The case was settled out of court by the management's agreement with Mr. Buyyden to abolish his discriminatory policy. The civil rights law of Ohio provides that violation of it constitutes a criminal offense with penalties of a fine and imprisonment.

Cleveland Café Case

Mr. and Mrs. Joseph Jones were refused service in Zahler's Lunchroom in Cleveland, O., and entered a civil suit against the proprietor. In May, 1944, Judge Joseph Sibert of the municipal court ruled against the lunchroom and awarded damages of \$250 to the couple.

Grand Rapids Beach Case

The Rev. Robert Zoerheide, white, sued Harvey Clark, white, proprietor of a beach resort in Olin Parks, Grand Rapids, Mich., in July, 1944, for twice refusing to permit a young boy, Lantz

Hill, to go swimming at the beach on grounds of his color.

Clark pleaded not guilty, contending that the state's anti-discrimination law prohibits refusal by a proprietor within a building to serve or sell to any person, but does not specify that outdoor recreation places come under its provisions. Clark was subsequently found guilty of violating the law.

Some Detroit Cases

Constable Fred Thompson was awarded judgment of \$25 in the Common Pleas Court of Detroit because he was refused service in the Midway Lunch in July, 1944.

Christine Blalock, white, a waitress in a sandwich shop at 104 Monroe Street, was found guilty and given a three months' probation in July, 1945, for having refused to serve Mrs. Myrtle Ealy.

Judy Hannack, waitress, was found guilty by a Recorder's Court for having refused to serve Miss Otha Kirk at the Old Colony Bar in June, 1944.

Mrs. Maude Griffin lost her case against Elsie O'Dell, white, waitress, for refusing to serve her at the Cadillac Square restaurant in July, 1945.

Davenport Grill Case

Mrs. Dorothy Baxter, white proprietor of the Colonial Fountain and Grill in Davenport, Ia., was found guilty in August, 1945, of violating the civil rights law in refusing to serve Mr. and Mrs. Charles Toney. She was fined \$10 and costs of court, totaling \$40.75.

Elizabeth Restaurant Case

Frank W. Snowden filed suit against the Howard Johnson restaurant in Elizabeth, N.J., for refusing to serve him and his father in October, 1943. At the trial, held in April, 1945, the two testified that they had been refused service at an empty table with the excuse that it was reserved. They lingered in the restaurant and saw white persons seated and served at the table.

The jury returned a verdict of guilty

and awarded \$100 damages to the plaintiffs.

New Jersey Barbershop Case

Randolph Wilhelmsen sued Matthew Traiglio, proprietor, and a barber of his shop at the Harrison, N.J., plant of the Otis Elevator Company for refusing to cut his hair. He asked \$500 damages and counsel fees.

In April, 1944, Judge Lewis G. Hansen of the second district court in Newark dismissed the suit, ruling that the New Jersey civil rights law did not mention a barbershop as a "place of public accommodation." "If the legislature wanted to include barbershops," the judge said, "it could have and would have said so."

Hackensack Café Case

Judge Harry Randall in the first district civil court in Englewood, N.J., in September, 1944, levied the minimum fine of \$100 against the Esquire restaurant in Hackensack for refusing to serve Mrs. Sophie Jennings in violation of the state's civil rights law.

Boston Night Club Case

In April, 1943, Mrs. Novella Taylor and her escort were refused seats at a table near the bandstand at the Tic Toc Club in Boston. The couple was told that the table was reserved for white persons only. Mrs. Taylor filed suit. A jury of the superior court in November, 1944, awarded her a sealed verdict in her favor after she had refused to settle the case out of court.

Earlier the plaintiff's counsel had asked the license board to suspend the club's license. The board refused to do this, but reprimanded the club owners.

Waukegan Café Case

Seaman LeRoy Harris and his wife were refused service in a restaurant at Waukegan, Ill., in March, 1945, and entered suit against the owner. In October, 1945, the owner was found guilty in the circuit court of Lake County and Harris was awarded \$50 damages.

New York Hotel Case

In March, 1943, William Bowman, organizer for the United Automobile Workers, filed suit against Martin A. Nichols, night manager of the Knickerbocker Hotel in New York, alleging that he had been refused accommodations there.

The court of special sessions, in January, 1944, ruled against Mr. Nichols and fined him \$100 or thirty days in jail for violation of the state's civil rights law. The manager had contended that he did not refuse Mr. Bowman a room, but told him that he had a number of guests who might be offended by his presence.

Upon giving the decision, Presiding Justice Nathan Pearlman said that it was the first conviction of its kind under the state civil rights law. The plaintiff announced that he would file papers for his civil suit demanding \$500 damages; and the defendant announced that he would appeal the decision.

New York Bar and Grill Case

Frank Wilson charged that O'Gara's Bar and Grill in New York refused to serve him on August 8, 1944, violating the state's civil rights law, and sued for damages. Witnesses for the grill owner testified that Mr. Wilson and his friends had been drinking. The plaintiff testified that the bartender said: "We do not serve Africans here."

A jury in the municipal court in January, 1945, ruled against the bar and grill and awarded Mr. Wilson \$300 damages.

Mount Vernon Skating Rink

Hilda Proctor of Yonkers sued the Mount Vernon Arena, alleging that she had been denied her rights under the state's civil rights law when managers of the arena refused to permit her to skate. She went to the roller skating rink in October, 1941, in company with some white high school classmates, and the others were permitted to use the rink.

The trial court ruled in Miss Proctor's favor in 1942, awarding her \$300 damages. The decision was appealed and the Appellate Division reversed

the decision. In March, 1944, the Court of Appeals upheld the lower court's decision and awarded the girl the \$300 damages.

HEALTH AND VITAL STATISTICS

BIRTHS AND DEATHS

Source: Bureau of the Census

All statistics on births and deaths in tables compiled by the United States Bureau of the Census, which follow, exclude stillbirths. Also excluded from the mortality tables are deaths occurring overseas. The tabulations by the Census Bureau are by place of residence rather than by place of occurrence, which was the basis for tabulations previous to 1940.

For most states the birth rates and death rates for all causes on a residential basis do not differ greatly from those by place of occurrence. This is

true for most causes of deaths, but for certain causes, such as tuberculosis, movement of people to hospitals and sanatoria is an important factor.

Caution should be taken in judging the stillbirth data. The reporting of stillbirths in some states is more complete than in others. Also differences in the legal definition of a stillbirth as used in the individual states make it impossible to compile strictly comparable data for all states and confuse the interpretation of consolidated national figures.

**TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS, BY RACE:
UNITED STATES AND EACH STATE, 1943**

(By place of residence)

Area	Births			Deaths		
	Total *	White	Negro	Total *	White	Negro
United States . . .	2,934,860	2,594,763	324,865	1,459,544	1,280,887	171,247
Alabama	77,535	50,083	27,433	26,373	14,812	11,554
Arizona	14,297	12,620	370	5,927	4,803	218
Arkansas	42,589	32,469	10,077	15,539	10,750	4,724
California	174,420	166,880	4,028	89,109	85,166	2,378
Colorado	24,367	23,676	300	12,761	12,382	286
Connecticut	39,005	38,083	913	20,014	19,498	506
Delaware	6,229	5,307	917	3,497	2,851	644
District of Columbia	16,080	10,825	5,227	8,787	5,600	3,164
Florida	46,744	34,691	12,026	23,462	16,187	7,256
Georgia	78,387	50,187	28,191	30,101	16,917	13,180
Idaho	12,391	12,268	1	4,712	4,648	3
Illinois	155,735	146,475	9,118	92,058	85,276	6,682
Indiana	74,672	72,084	2,577	41,257	39,028	2,220
Iowa	47,617	47,276	301	26,189	25,906	271
Kansas	36,021	34,699	1,239	19,021	17,959	1,039
Kentucky	65,566	62,138	3,426	29,051	25,291	3,758
Louisiana	62,005	38,392	23,524	24,007	13,494	10,495
Maine	18,944	18,899	18	10,902	10,869	19
Maryland	47,371	38,770	8,582	24,113	18,782	5,317
Massachusetts	85,917	84,682	1,169	54,653	53,661	900
Michigan	125,778	120,055	5,512	57,046	53,706	3,205
Minnesota	58,508	58,006	52	26,991	26,598	173
Mississippi	59,846	27,820	31,892	21,193	9,390	11,760
Missouri	72,458	67,391	5,043	44,289	39,779	4,488

**TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS, BY RACE:
UNITED STATES AND EACH STATE, 1943 (Cont.)**

Area	Total *	Births		Total *	Deaths	
		White	Negro		White	Negro
Montana	11,407	10,754	11	5,601	5,277	23
Nebraska	25,048	24,614	281	13,062	12,723	243
Nevada	3,026	2,817	31	1,615	1,460	40
New Hampshire ...	9,367	9,352	11	6,246	6,238	7
New Jersey	83,032	77,421	5,587	50,281	46,569	3,689
New Mexico	15,211	14,275	112	5,488	4,950	69
New York	248,627	236,922	11,250	162,186	153,757	7,961
North Carolina	94,568	66,327	27,232	29,971	19,551	10,203
North Dakota	13,422	13,111	3	5,170	5,024	1
Ohio	144,087	136,434	7,616	82,464	76,863	5,563
Oklahoma	48,639	43,631	3,065	20,271	17,587	2,018
Oregon	25,450	25,105	68	13,704	13,492	48
Pennsylvania	199,366	187,607	11,727	115,907	107,934	7,911
Rhode Island	14,667	14,313	341	8,922	8,713	193
South Carolina	54,144	29,844	24,280	18,552	9,190	9,360
South Dakota	12,816	12,151	8	5,641	5,292	8
Tennessee	70,203	59,348	10,849	27,935	20,823	7,110
Texas	164,513	144,278	20,140	62,216	51,113	11,069
Utah	17,161	16,942	24	5,054	4,922	27
Vermont	7,303	7,299	4	4,601	4,599	1
Virginia	72,157	54,663	17,467	28,915	19,300	9,594
Washington	44,520	43,597	133	22,566	21,949	185
West Virginia	43,372	40,975	2,396	17,239	15,752	1,484
Wisconsin	64,450	63,744	271	32,668	32,327	170
Wyoming	5,822	5,463	22	2,217	2,129	30

* Other racial groups included in totals.

**TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF DEATHS FROM SELECTED CAUSES,
BY SPECIFIED RACE: UNITED STATES, 1943**

Cause of Death	Total	White	Negro	All Other
All causes	1,459,544	1,280,887	171,247	7,410
Typhoid and paratyphoid fever	683	456	199	28
Cerebrospinal (meningococcus) meningitis ...	2,927	2,523	379	26
Scarlet fever	451	428	18	5
Whooping cough	3,368	2,493	818	57
Diphtheria (infection by <i>C. diphtheriae</i>)	1,196	1,062	124	10
Tuberculosis (all forms)	57,005	41,209	14,513	1,283
Tuberculosis of respiratory system, etc.	52,407	38,135	13,145	1,127
Tuberculosis (other forms)	4,598	3,074	1,368	156
Dysentery	1,909	1,471	403	35
Malaria	647	299	345	3
Syphilis	16,263	10,365	5,725	173
Measles	1,301	1,150	99	52
Poliomyelitis, poliencephalitis (acute)	1,151	1,080	62	9
Cancer and other malignant tumors	166,848	155,687	10,658	503
Cancer of digestive organs, peritoneum	76,552	72,084	4,193	275
Cancer of female genital organs	21,639	19,014	2,585	40
Cancer of the breast	16,140	15,103	1,013	24
Cancer (other sites)	52,517	49,486	2,867	164
Acute rheumatic fever	1,501	1,201	284	16
Diabetes mellitus	36,314	33,801	2,409	104
Exophthalmic goiter	2,853	2,619	225	9

**TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF DEATHS FROM SELECTED CAUSES,
BY SPECIFIED RACE: UNITED STATES, 1943 (Cont.)**

Cause of Death	Total	White	Negro	All Other
Pellagra (except alcoholic).....	1,363	888	467	8
Alcoholism (ethylism)	2,203	1,990	200	13
Intracranial lesions of vascular origin.....	127,300	111,634	15,335	331
Diseases of the heart.....	426,391	391,204	34,173	1,014
Chr. rheu. dis. of heart.....	27,196	24,070	3,025	101
Diseases of coronary arteries and angina pectoris	120,725	115,293	5,235	197
Diseases of the heart (other forms).....	278,470	251,841	25,913	716
Pneumonia (all forms), influenza.....	90,115	74,569	14,733	813
Bronchopneumonia	34,616	29,575	4,713	328
Lobar pneumonia	31,044	25,393	5,387	264
Pneumonia (unspecified)	7,236	5,569	1,537	130
Influenza	17,219	14,032	3,096	91
Ulcer of stomach or duodenum.....	9,333	8,464	826	43
Diarrhea, enteritis, etc.	12,827	10,167	2,368	292
Appendicitis	8,108	7,080	996	32
Hernia and intestinal obstruction.....	12,459	10,023	1,490	56
Cirrhosis of the liver	12,527	11,727	751	49
Biliary calculi, etc.	6,773	6,480	249	44
Nephritis	99,267	83,332	15,683	252
Diseases of the prostate.....	8,297	7,512	766	19
Diseases of pregnancy, childbirth, and the puerperium	7,197	5,463	1,666	68
Puerperal septicemia	2,593	1,985	583	25
Puerperal toxemia	1,936	1,395	525	16
Other puerperal causes	2,668	2,083	558	27
Congenital malformations	16,766	15,671	1,015	80
Premature birth (cause not stated).....	34,563	29,469	4,921	173
Suicide	13,725	13,306	345	74
Homicide	6,690	3,163	3,471	56
Accidental causes	99,038	89,106	9,424	508
Motor-vehicle accidents	23,823	21,466	2,211	146
Other accidents	75,215	67,640	7,213	362
Senility, ill-defined, unknown	31,169	20,647	9,953	569
All other causes.....	139,016	122,248	16,154	614

**TABLE 3.—DEATH RATES FOR THE FIVE LEADING CAUSES OF DEATH
IN EACH AGE GROUP, BY RACE: UNITED STATES, 1943**

Age and Cause of Death	Rate per 100,000 Population		
	Total	White	Non- White
Under 1 year:			
All causes	4,296.7	3,958.3	7,056.5
Premature birth	1,253.4	1,199.7	1,691.2
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	660.3	562.2	1,459.8
Congenital malformations	523.5	550.8	300.8
Injury at birth	398.5	402.0	370.5
Diarrhea, enteritis, etc.....	317.5	284.9	584.0
Other causes	1,143.5	958.7	2,650.3
1-4 years:			
All causes	255.7	232.2	417.7
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	54.6	47.1	105.9
Accidents excluding motor-vehicle accidents.....	42.2	39.3	62.6

**TABLE 3.—DEATH RATES FOR THE FIVE LEADING CAUSES OF DEATH
IN EACH AGE GROUP, BY RACE: UNITED STATES, 1943 (Cont.)**

Age and Cause of Death	Rate per 100,000 Population		
	Total	White	Non-White
1-4 years:			
Diarrhea, enteritis, etc.....	16.9	13.5	40.1
Congenital malformations	11.4	12.1	7.3
Motor-vehicle accidents	11.0	11.2	9.0
Other causes	119.6	109.0	192.9
5-14 years:			
All causes	95.8	90.3	133.5
Accidents excluding motor-vehicle accidents.....	21.4	20.5	27.2
Motor-vehicle accidents	9.0	9.2	7.4
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	8.0	6.9	15.2
Diseases of the heart.....	6.2	5.8	9.1
Appendicitis	4.8	4.8	4.9
Other causes	46.5	43.1	69.6
15-24 years:			
All causes	204.7	176.1	423.5
Accidents excluding motor-vehicle accidents.....	47.0	47.4	44.5
Tuberculosis (all forms)	34.7	19.9	148.1
Motor-vehicle accidents	19.8	20.2	16.3
Diseases of the heart	13.8	12.5	23.7
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	10.2	8.4	24.0
Other causes	79.2	67.7	166.9
25-44 years:			
All causes	376.1	318.4	865.8
Diseases of the heart	60.4	53.0	123.2
Tuberculosis (all forms)	51.4	38.6	159.8
Cancer and other malignant tumors	37.9	36.1	53.3
Accidents excluding motor-vehicle accidents.....	34.5	33.4	43.5
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	21.7	16.9	61.9
Other causes	170.2	140.3	424.1
45-64 years:			
All causes	1,492.8	1,396.1	2,601.5
Diseases of the heart	482.3	462.0	713.5
Cancer and other malignant tumors	250.1	249.5	256.8
Intracranial lesions of vascular origin.....	131.2	113.3	336.4
Nephritis	100.9	83.5	299.6
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	68.5	60.1	164.5
Other causes	459.9	427.6	830.7
65 years and over:			
All causes	7,103.8	7,131.8	6,711.2
Diseases of the heart	2,733.5	2,782.2	2,049.3
Intracranial lesions of vascular origin.....	878.2	872.9	952.3
Cancer and other malignant tumors	831.3	857.4	464.4
Nephritis	639.9	615.2	987.9
Pneumonia (all forms) and influenza.....	363.7	361.2	399.1
Other causes	1,657.3	1,643.0	1,858.2

NOTE.—Rates based on total population excluding armed forces overseas.

INFANT MORTALITY DECLINE DURING WAR

Sources: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and Bureau of the Census

Infant mortality, continuing its long-term downward trend, reached record low levels during the war years. This decline is particularly gratifying, inasmuch as it occurred during a period when the birth rate rose sharply, thus augmenting the number of babies in the population.

In the white population of the country, deaths among babies under 1 year of age dropped from 43.2 per 1000 live births in 1940, to 37.5 per 1000 in 1943, a decline of 13 percent in three years; among the colored the improvement was slightly more—namely, 15 percent. (See table 4 for statistics from the Bureau of Census.)

Because of the improvement in infant mortality, there were about 19,000 fewer deaths among children under 1 year of age in 1943 than there would have been if the death rate in 1940 had continued to prevail; infant deaths

totaled about 118,500 in 1943, the latest year for which complete data are available. Partial information for later dates indicates that infant mortality has continued to decline since then.

The safeguarding of infant life during the war years was achieved in the face of many adverse conditions, such as overcrowded housing, disrupted family life, and depleted medical and nursing personnel.

In large measure, the improvement in infant mortality was due to recent advances in medicine, particularly the widespread use of the sulfa drugs, the increased hospitalization of births, the emergency maternity and infant care program inaugurated by the federal government for families of men in the lower ranks of the armed services, and the generally higher standard of living for a large proportion of the population.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF BIRTHS, DEATHS, MATERNAL DEATHS, AND INFANT DEATHS, AND RATES, AND STILLBIRTHS AND RATIOS, BY RACE: REGISTRATION STATES, FOR SPECIFIED YEARS

Subject	1943		1942		1941		1940	
	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate	Number	Rate
Births:								
Total	2,934,860	21.5	2,808,996	20.9	2,513,427	18.9	2,360,399	17.9
White	2,594,763	21.2	2,486,934	20.6	2,204,903	18.4	2,067,953	17.5
Negro	324,865	24.1	307,777	23.2	294,554	22.6	278,869	21.7
Other	15,232		14,285		13,970		13,577	
Deaths:								
Total	1,459,544	10.9	1,385,187	10.4	1,397,642	10.5	1,417,269	10.7
White	1,280,887	10.7	1,209,944	10.1	1,213,511	10.2	1,231,223	10.4
Negro	171,247	12.8	168,244	12.7	176,729	13.5	178,743	13.8
Other	7,410		6,999		7,402		7,303	
Maternal deaths:								
Total	7,197	2.5	7,267	2.6	7,956	3.2	8,876	3.8
White	5,463	2.1	5,515	2.2	5,864	2.7	6,614	3.2
Negro	1,666	5.1	1,690	5.5	2,033	6.9	2,180	7.8
Other	68	4.5	62	4.3	59	4.2	82	6.0
Infant deaths:								
Total	118,484	40.4	113,492	40.4	113,949	45.3	110,984	47.0
White	97,229	37.5	92,678	37.3	90,874	41.2	89,406	43.2
Negro	19,967	61.5	19,756	64.2	21,834	74.1	20,342	72.9
Other	1,288	84.6	1,058	74.1	1,241	88.8	1,236	91.0
Stillbirths:								
Total	78,485	26.7	79,174	28.2	75,133	29.9	73,802	31.3
White	62,776	24.2	63,301	25.5	58,467	26.5	57,220	27.7
Negro	15,362	47.3	15,538	50.5	16,318	55.4	16,236	58.2
Other	347	22.8	335	23.5	348	24.9	346	25.5

NOTE.—Birth and death rates per 1000 estimated population; maternal death and infant death rates, and stillbirth ratios per 1000 live births. Birth rates are based on total population including armed forces overseas. Death rates for 1940-1943 are based on total population excluding armed forces overseas. See text for qualifying factors.

It is significant that the greatest relative improvement took place in those areas where the infant mortality was highest.

The West South Central states experienced a more marked decline than any other geographic area, amounting, among white babies, to 23 percent between 1940 and 1943.

In the East South Central states and in the Mountain states, both of which have unfavorable records as regards infant mortality, the drop was about 16 percent. As a result of the marked recent progress the excess mortality in these three areas over that of other areas of the country has been materially reduced.

When the recent trend of infant mortality is analyzed according to size

of community, the results show that for white babies the decrease was relatively twice as rapid in small towns and rural areas as in the larger cities. Thus, in communities of 25,000 or more population, the decline between 1940 and 1943 was 8 percent. In places of 10,000 or less population, including rural areas, the drop was more than 16 percent.

It is encouraging that the mortality from premature birth, the outstanding cause of infant death, was reduced by more than 13 percent between 1940 and 1943 among both white and colored babies.

This decrease undoubtedly is due mainly to better prenatal care of mothers and to the increased proportion of deliveries in hospitals.

MATERNAL MORTALITY

Sources: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and Bureau of the Census

When in 1933 the committee on public health relations of the New York Academy of Medicine reported, on the basis of careful and extended investigation, that maternal mortality in New York City could be reduced by two thirds, the announcement was received with considerable skepticism.

In some quarters it was assailed even as visionary and unwarranted by the facts. And yet in barely more than a decade this objective has not only been attained but surpassed. The maternal death rate in New York City in 1933 was 64 per 10,000 live births; by 1944, it had been reduced to 17, a decline of 73 percent.

Not alone in New York but in a number of other cities throughout the country, studies were made in the early 30's to find out why no appreciable progress had been made in reducing the hazards of maternity, and where the responsibility for this failure rested.

The campaign against preventable death in maternity truly took on national proportions, and the results

achieved in the country as a whole were not far behind those for New York City.

Between 1933 and 1944, maternal mortality in the United States fell from 62 per 10,000 live births to 23, a decrease of 63 percent. In fact, among white women the two thirds goal set by the Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine was exceeded.

It is true that in the past few years new and potent weapons—the sulfa drugs and penicillin—have been available against puerperal infection, the leading cause of death in maternity.

Between 1939 and 1943 puerperal septicemia recorded a larger reduction in mortality than any other single cause, the rate being cut by more than half among white women. In the same four-year period, the mortality from albuminuria and convulsions in this group dropped by exactly one third, and the rate from all other puerperal causes combined by nearly one third.

Among colored¹ women, too, very substantial progress has been made in

¹ The term "colored" is generally used to designate all nonwhite racial groups and includes Indians, Orientals, and others.

reducing the hazards of childbearing, although the recent gains have not been quite as marked as for white women. Thus, the decline in maternal mortality among the colored between 1939 and 1943 was 33 percent as against 40 percent for the white.

A smaller improvement for the colored is observed for each of the major causes of mortality. Obviously, special attention should be given to the needs of colored women, among whom the maternal death rate is $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that for the white.

The benefits of the recent improvement in maternal mortality have been

extended to all the age groups, although, as the table indicates, the relative decline was smallest at the later childbearing years. This was so for both white and colored women, but more particularly among the latter. Only a minor proportion of all births occur among mothers 35 and over—slightly more than one in eight; yet these ages contribute about one fourth of the deaths from puerperal causes.

(See tables 5 and 6 for statistics on maternal deaths from various causes and on births by person in attendance, from the Bureau of the Census.)

**TABLE 5.—DEATH RATES FROM PUERPERAL CAUSES, BY RACE:
UNITED STATES, 1943**

Cause of Death	Number	Death Rate per 1,000 Live Births		
		Total	White	Non- White
Diseases of pregnancy, childbirth, and the puerperium	7,197	2.5	2.1	5.1
Abortion with mention of infection.....	789	0.3	0.2	0.6
Spontaneous, therapeutic, or unspecified.....	586	0.2	0.2	0.6
Nontherapeutic (including self-induced).....	203	0.1	0.1	0.1
Abortion without mention of infection	376	0.1	0.1	0.3
Spontaneous, therapeutic, or unspecified.....	347	0.1	0.1	0.3
Nontherapeutic (including self-induced).....	29	0.0	0.0	0.0
Puerperal hemorrhages	1,126	0.4	0.3	0.7
Puerperal toxemia	1,826	0.6	0.5	1.5
Other puerperal diseases and accidents.....	537	0.2	0.2	0.4
Puerperal infection (except septic abortion).....	1,625	0.6	0.5	1.0
Other accidents and conditions of childbirth and the puerperium	918	0.3	0.3	0.6

**TABLE 6.—PERCENT OF BIRTHS, BY PERSON IN ATTENDANCE,
URBAN AND RURAL, BY RACE: UNITED STATES, 1943**

(By place of residence)

Area and Race	Total Number	Total	Percent		Mid- wife	Other and Not Specified
			Physi- cian (in Hospital)	(Not in Hospital)		
United States.....	2,934,860	100.0	72.1	21.0	6.6	0.4
White	2,594,763	100.0	77.2	20.6	2.0	0.3
Nonwhite	340,097	100.0	33.3	24.0	41.7	1.0
Urban	1,714,164	100.0	86.9	10.5	2.4	0.1
Places of 100,000 or more....	821,715	100.0	91.7	7.2	1.1	0.1
Places of 25,000 to 100,000..	356,269	100.0	88.3	8.9	2.6	0.1
Places of 10,000 to 25,000...	241,117	100.0	84.2	12.1	3.5	0.1
Places of 2,500 to 10,000....	295,063	100.0	74.4	20.7	4.7	0.3
Rural	1,220,696	100.0	51.2	35.6	12.5	0.7

LONGEVITY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE IN 1943

Source: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

The average length of life of the American people in 1943, as computed from the mortality then current, was 64½ years, or only one third of a year less than the peak reached in 1942. These figures reflect the experience of the entire population within the United States, both civilian and military, but the data exclude the experience among men and women serving overseas and elsewhere beyond the borders of our country. (See table 7.)

The slight setback in longevity during 1943 was due in large measure to the high toll taken by the influenza epidemic which swept the country toward the close of that year.

Two other factors played a major role in reducing the average length of life of the resident population, particularly among white males, during our second full war year. In the first place, very large numbers of the healthiest males at the prime ages of life were withdrawn for service overseas in 1943, so that they were excluded from the experience. Secondly, among the young men still in the country there was a sharp rise in mortality from accidents, especially in connection with military aviation.

As a result, the average length of life of white males on the basis of mortality conditions in 1943 was reduced to 63 16 years, one half year less than in 1942. For white females with an average of 68.27 years, the corresponding reduction was only one third of a year.

Among colored persons the change in experience from 1942 to 1943 was more favorable than among the white. Colored males, with an average of 54.65 years in 1943, gained almost two fifths of a year, while the figure for colored females remained practically unchanged at 58 years.

So slight was the setback in 1943 for the population as a whole that the record for the year still compares very

favorably with that for prewar years. The average length of life (expectation of life at birth) ² in 1943 was three quarters of a year above the figure for 1940, five years better than that for 1930, and 15¼ years greater than the average at the beginning of the century.

The gain since 1900 was greater for females than for males, and more pronounced for colored persons than for the white. The increases were: white females, 17.19 years; white males, 14.93; colored females, 22.93; and colored males, 22.11 years.

Changes similar to those noted for the expectation of life at birth are found also at a wide range of ages.

Although each race and sex group at the age of 40 experienced a slight setback in expectation of life from 1942 to 1943, all of them show a decided improvement as compared with 1900.

The expectation of life for white girls 8 years old is just as great as that for newly born white males. The superior longevity of females is also evident from the fact that, whereas nine out of ten white male babies are expected to survive to age 32, among white females the same proportion will live to 43 years.

Longevity among colored lives still lags substantially behind that for white persons. For example, the average length of life for the colored in 1943 was less than that for white persons in 1919-1921. In 1943 the expectation of life at birth for colored persons was about the same as that for white persons 13 years of age. Similarly, nine out of ten of the colored males will survive from birth to age 16, and a like proportion to age 21 for colored females.

² By expectation of life at birth is meant the number of years a person would live until age 65 if he is subject throughout his lifetime to specified mortality rates.

Mortality rates show further evidence of the handicap of the colored as compared with the white population. For the wide range of ages from 16 to 42 years, the mortality rates for colored females were fully three times those for white females, while from ages 43 to 60 the rates were twice as great.

At ages 12 to 15 also, colored girls were subject to a mortality double that for white girls. Among males the rates for the colored were at least twice

those for white lives from ages 26 to 51. The facts clearly indicate that there is substantial room for improvement in the mortality and longevity of the colored population.

There are indications, from provisional data available so far, that in 1944 the American people had recovered, in part, from the setback which they experienced during 1943 and that the situation in early 1945 showed the same favorable trend.

TABLE 7.—EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT BIRTH IN THE UNITED STATES, ACCORDING TO COLOR AND SEX, FOR SELECTED PERIODS FROM 1900 TO 1943

Year or Period	Birth		Colored *	
	White		Males	Females
1943†	63.16	68.27	54.65	57.97
1942†	63.65	68.61	54.28	58.00
1939-1941†	62.81	67.29	52.26	55.56
1930-1939†	60.62	64.52	50.06	52.62
1929-1931†	59.12	62.67	47.55	49.51
1920-1929†	57.85	60.62	46.90	47.95
1919-1921†	56.34	58.53	47.14	46.92
1909-1911§	50.23	53.62	34.05	37.67
1901-1910§	49.32	52.54	32.57	35.65
1900-1902§	48.23	51.08	32.54	35.04
Gain: 1900-1902 to 1943	14.93	17.19	22.11	22.93

NOTE.—The life tables for 1943 and 1942 were prepared in the Statistical Bureau of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, that for 1943 being on the basis of unpublished data furnished by the United States Census Bureau.

* Data for periods from 1900 to 1931 and 1939 to 1941 relate to Negroes only.

† Continental United States.

‡ Registration states of 1920.

§ Original death registration states.

TUBERCULOSIS DEATH RATE

Source: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

The death rate from tuberculosis in our industrial population has been reduced to only one seventh of what it was three and one half decades ago. The social and economic gains which have naturally flowed from the increasing control over the disease have been truly immeasurable.

Not only have huge numbers of lives been saved, but in addition many families have been saved from disruption by the death of a parent, and many have been spared lingering, disabling illness. Few achievements in life conservation have contributed so much to

the well-being and happiness of the American people.

A good picture of what has happened to tuberculosis mortality in the past 35 years is available from the experience of the many millions of industrial policyholders of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. The standardized death rate from the disease among these insured (ages 1 to 74 years) fell rapidly from a peak of 223.9 per 100,000 in 1911-1915 to a low of 34.4 in the first nine months of 1945, a drop of 85 percent.

Each color, sex, and age group en-

joyed a large decrease, although all groups did not share equally in the benefits. The largest relative declines occurred in childhood and in early adult life; the smallest improvement took place at the older ages.

For example, among white males, in the ages between 5 and 35 the drop in tuberculosis mortality was more than 90 percent, but at 65 to 74 years the decline was 52 percent. Females in each race did slightly better than males at the ages beyond 35; before that age, males generally made the better record.

Progress in controlling tuberculosis among the colored, although marked, has not kept pace with the improvement among white persons. Between 1911-1915 and 1945, the mortality from the disease in this insurance experience dropped 77 percent among the colored, as compared with 86 percent among the white.

At present, the tuberculosis death rate among colored males is almost $2\frac{1}{2}$ times the rate for white males; among females, the corresponding ratio is more than 4 to 1. Current death rates for the colored are about at the level of those for white policyholders two decades ago. The organized effort to control tuberculosis among American wage earners and their families during the past 35 years has been eminently successful, but it is still far short of its goal—virtual eradication of the disease. Modern facilities for case-finding, treatment, and rehabilitation have not been put to their fullest use.

This is particularly true in the col-

ored population, where the hard core of the problem now lies.

Death Rates from Tuberculosis by Race: 1910-1943

United States Death Registration Area
Source: National Tuberculosis Association

Death Rate per 100,000 Population			
Year	Total	White	Colored
1910.....	160.3	148.3	447.7
1911.....	159.2	146.3	446.1
1912.....	149.7	137.5	418.1
1913.....	147.8	134.8	387.8
1914.....	147.2	133.4	401.7
1915.....	146.3	131.7	409.8
1916.....	142.1	127.9	335.0
1917.....	147.1	131.5	344.5
1918.....	150.0	133.9	347.0
1919.....	125.6	110.6	282.3
1920.....	114.0	100.0	262.2
1921.....	98.9	85.6	239.7
1922.....	96.4	83.3	220.0
1923.....	92.8	80.4	213.4
1924.....	89.7	76.4	219.3
1925.....	86.7	73.1	222.9
1926.....	87.3	73.4	224.8
1927.....	80.9	67.6	208.7
1928.....	79.3	65.9	199.7
1929.....	76.0	63.0	191.9
1930.....	71.6	58.4	175.3
1931.....	68.2	53.8	180.7
1932.....	62.9	49.9	164.2
1933.....	59.6	47.2	156.7
1934.....	56.7	46.2	148.8
1935.....	55.1	44.9	145.1
1936.....	55.9	45.0	151.6
1937.....	53.8	43.4	145.1
1938.....	49.1	39.1	136.8
1939.....	47.1	37.7	129.1
1940.....	45.8	36.6	128.0
1941.....	44.4	35.4	124.6
1942.....	43.1	34.4	118.4
1943.....	42.6	34.3	112.9

DEATH RATES (NUMBER PER 100,000 ENUMERATED POPULATION) FOR TUBERCULOSIS (ALL FORMS), BY RACE, AND BY URBAN AND RURAL PLACE OF RESIDENCE, BY DIVISION AND STATE, 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

Division and State	Total (all ages)	White	Negro	Urban	Rural*
United States	45.9	36.6	123.5	49.8	42.4
New England	35.2	33.9	124.1	36.6	33.0
Maine	29.9	29.6	76.7	27.9	31.9
New Hampshire	21.2	21.0	0.0	22.7	23.3
Vermont	41.5	41.5	0.0	70.0	38.5
Massachusetts	37.7	36.5	113.7	37.6	34.8
Rhode Island	33.1	31.2	154.2	31.7	54.4
Connecticut	34.9	32.9	136.4	39.4	30.2

DEATH RATES (NUMBER PER 100,000 ENUMERATED POPULATION) FOR TUBERCULOSIS (ALL FORMS), BY RACE, AND BY URBAN AND RURAL PLACE OF RESIDENCE, BY DIVISION AND STATE, 1940 (Cont.)

Division and State	Total (all ages)	White	Negro	Urban	Rural *
Middle Atlantic	44.5	37.0	194.5	46.0	41.5
New York	46.4	39.0	205.0	45.2	47.6
New Jersey	43.0	34.4	190.3	42.0	49.6
Pennsylvania	42.6	35.4	183.8	49.7	35.2
East North Central	39.1	32.2	200.5	45.5	32.1
Ohio	40.4	32.1	200.3	48.9	30.4
Indiana	40.2	35.2	175.5	46.0	36.6
Illinois	46.2	37.0	218.6	52.8	37.3
Michigan	33.6	27.4	178.6	37.1	30.1
Wisconsin	26.5	24.9	255.0	27.2	24.3
West North Central	28.7	24.6	134.8	33.1	27.3
Minnesota	27.1	25.5	141.0	25.0	27.8
Iowa	17.1	16.4	89.9	19.4	16.8
Missouri	45.0	37.5	152.2	47.8	45.4
North Dakota	19.3	15.8	0.0	17.7	19.7
South Dakota	29.4	15.7	211.0	20.2	33.2
Nebraska	17.1	15.0	112.9	29.4	12.3
Kansas	24.9	22.5	84.4	30.8	22.4
South Atlantic	53.9	32.5	113.4	71.6	45.2
Delaware	46.9	32.1	142.2	40.0	57.8
Maryland	79.1	47.5	237.5	79.4	64.5
Dist. of Columbia	64.4	33.3	142.6	85.8	...
Virginia	58.1	36.5	123.8	66.0	55.9
West Virginia	46.1	40.7	127.4	53.0	44.7
North Carolina	49.9	26.4	112.1	67.4	39.2
South Carolina	47.4	21.2	82.2	81.6	41.9
Georgia	50.0	26.9	90.4	82.9	38.5
Florida	50.6	27.7	111.8	57.9	45.8
East South Central	62.4	48.8	101.5	76.8	58.7
Kentucky	69.7	62.1	162.1	73.2	67.4
Tennessee	74.9	59.2	149.2	83.9	72.6
Alabama	52.9	31.1	93.8	78.8	45.5
Mississippi	48.8	24.2	74.0	58.6	48.7
West South Central	55.9	46.2	92.7	71.8	50.0
Arkansas	50.6	35.9	95.5	78.0	48.7
Louisiana	58.8	38.4	95.5	78.8	48.7
Oklahoma	48.2	35.8	124.4	56.0	46.5
Texas	59.2	55.2	83.0	73.3	52.3
Mountain	57.4	49.5	181.3	68.6	43.6
Montana	40.2	31.8	178.6	53.4	37.4
Idaho	18.1	15.2	0.0	14.4	19.2
Wyoming	16.8	13.8	104.6	17.9	18.0
Colorado	53.4	51.0	230.0	53.7	37.7
New Mexico	75.4	74.5	214.0	111.2	57.7
Arizona	170.9	145.5	160.1	311.1	99.5
Utah	16.2	14.9	81.0	22.4	13.5
Nevada	71.7	50.0	0.0	51.6	75.3
Pacific	50.3	45.0	153.4	49.1	51.4
Washington	40.7	35.1	161.6	39.2	40.4
Oregon	27.3	24.5	272.9	33.6	25.1
California	56.3	50.9	150.4	52.5	62.3

* "Rural" includes areas having less than 10,000 population.

TUBERCULOSIS DEATH RATES AMONG RESIDENTS OF EACH RACIAL GROUP IN 22 LARGE CITIES *: 1941 AND 1940

(Death Rate is number per 100,000)

City	1941 Tuberculosis Death Rates			1940 Tuberculosis Death Rates		
	All Residents	White	Negro	All Residents	White	Negro
Atlanta	105	26	255	88	30	197
Baltimore	90	48	261	95	57	253
Birmingham	81	30	153	72	25	141
Chicago	**58	61	45	241
Cincinnati	**68	68	42	255
Cleveland	61	35	257	58	44	196
Columbus	67	42	255	56	38	193
Dallas	55	42	114	56	42	124
Detroit	51	37	183	51	36	196
Houston	**70	68	54	115
Indianapolis	61	46	158	65	45	201
Kansas City, Mo....	43	28	167	51	38	166
Los Angeles	49	43	138	50	45	143
Louisville	64	41	199	64	43	185
Memphis	93	45	159	82	39	142
Newark	62	39	255	71	43	300
New Orleans	**78	81	61	128
New York City.....	55	44	214	54	43	214
Philadelphia	65	43	204	65	45	200
Pittsburgh	54	41	177	54	40	188
St. Louis	65	42	215	57	35	198
Washington	77	36	178	90	38	219

* Includes only those cities in which more than one tenth of the population is Negro and those in which the total Negro population exceeds 50,000.

** Data for residents dying outside the city in 1941 not available; figures include an estimate based on average of previous years.

HOSPITALS

There are 126 hospitals in the United States approved by the American Medical Association as of May 1, 1946, which cater exclusively to Negroes. The hospitals have a total of 19,795 beds and 929 bassinets. Exclusive of those approved by the A.M.A., the National Hospital Association, a Negro group, listed 20 Negro hospitals (in 1938) that were not on the A.M.A. approved list. They had 234 beds and 58 bassinets.

The number of hospitals and beds given here for the treatment of Negroes does not represent all hospital

facilities for Negroes, for there are many hospitals in northern states which do not separate their patients according to race. And, in addition, there are hospitals in the southern states which have certain wards for Negro patients that are not included here.

Some of the hospitals listed below were approved by the American College of Surgeons in 1943. These are indicated by footnotes. (The approved list of this body for 1946 was not available in time to be included here.)

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES

Registered by the American Medical Association

As of May 1, 1946

ALABAMA

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Slossfield Maternity Hosp. 2501 N. 19th St. Birmingham	Mrs. R. T. Collier, R.N., Supt.	12	16
Fraternal Hospital 42 Dorsey St. Montgomery	Mrs. M. E. Scott, R.N., Supt.	50	10
Searcy Hospital Mt. Vernon	Dr. W. D. Partlow, Med. Supt.	1,526	..
Burwell Infirmary 508 Philpot Ave. Selma	Mrs. M. B. Anderson, R.N., Supt.	38	4
Goodnow Hospital 811 W. Battle St. Talladega	Miss T. H. Parker, R.N., Supt.	18	1
Stillman Institute Hospital 3600 15th St. Tuscaloosa	Mr. A. L. Jackson, Supt.	50	5
Veterans Admin. Hospital ³ Tuskegee	Address the Manager	1,931	..
John Albion Andrew Memorial Hospital Tuskegee Institute	Dr. John W. Chenault, Med. Dir.	83	12

ARKANSAS

Thomas C. McRae Memo- rial Sanatorium Alexander	Dr. Hugh A. Browne, Med. Supt.	195	..
United Friends of America Hospital 714 W. 10th St. Little Rock	Dr. G. W. S. Ish, Med. Dir.	25	2

DELAWARE

Edgewood Sanatorium Marshallton	Dr. Conwell Banton, Med. Dir.	68	..
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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Adams' Hospital 1520 9th St., N.W.	Dr. G. L. Adams, Med. Supt.	23	6
Freedmen's Hospital ^{3, 5} 6th and Bryant Sts., N.W.	Dr. J. L. Hall, Med. Supt.	498	54

FLORIDA

Provident Hospital 1409 N.W. 6th St. Ft. Lauderdale	Dr. Von D. Mizell, Med. Dir.	32	10
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HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Brewster Hospital ³ 1640 Jefferson St. Jacksonville	Miss F. M. Jones, R.N., Supt.	95	25
Negro Tuberculosis Hosp. 1455 Milnor Ave. Jacksonville	Mrs. M. E. Bromley, R.N., Supt.	48	..
Christian Hospital 1218 N.W. 1st Pl. Miami	Mrs. T. T. Bayles Houston, Supt.	30	12
Mary Lawson Sanatorium 823 Lemon St. Palatka	Mrs. M. J. Lawson, R.N., Supt.	50	6
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical Coll. Hosp. Tallahassee	Dr. L. H. B. Foote, Med. Dir.	43	8
Clara Frye Tampa Munic- ipal Negro Hospital ³ 1814 Riverside Dr. Tampa	Mr. L. Jenkins, Jr., Bus. Mgr.	65	9
GEORGIA			
Dwelle's Infirmary 14 Boulevard N.E. Atlanta	Miss L. C. Edwards, R.N., Supt.	20	3
Grady Memorial Hospital (Emory Univ. Division) 36 Butler St., S.E. Atlanta	Mr. Frank Wilson, Supt.	309	..
Wm. A. Harris Memorial Hospital 975 Hunter St., N.W. Atlanta	Mrs. C. W. Powell, R.N., Supt.	30	4
Gillespie Hospital 15th Ave. and 12th St. Cordele	Mrs. E. B. Johnson, R.N., Supt.	25	6
St. Luke Hospital 119 Tatnall St. Macon	Dr. C. W. E. Dyer, Med. Dir.	30	5
Charity Hospital ⁴ 644 W. 36th St. Savannah	Dr. Wm. A. Harris, Med. Supt.	65	14
Georgia Infirmary Albercorn St. Savannah	Dr. T. J. Charlton, Med. Supt.	95	17
Van Buren's Sanitarium 38 Elm St. Statesboro	Miss V. Johnson, Supt.	25	6
ILLINOIS			
Provident Hospital ^{3, 5} 426 E. 51st St. Chicago	Dr. H. V. Wilburn, Med. Dir.	155	25

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Community Hospital ⁴ 2026 Brown Ave. Evanston	Dr. Isabella M. Garnett, Med. Supt.	28	7
INDIANA			
Patients' Hospital 1837 Jefferson St. Gary	Mrs. C. J. Hinkson, Supt.	40	6
St. John Hospital 28 E. 22d Ave. Gary	Dr. R. M. Hedrick, Med. Supt.	25	4
Hoover's Sanatorium 2144 8th Ave. Terre Haute	Dr. J. J. Hoover, Med. Supt.	14	2
KANSAS			
Douglass Hospital 336 Quindaro Blvd. Kansas City	Miss F. E. Kitchen, R.N., Supt.	23	4
KENTUCKY			
Red Cross Hospital ⁸ 1436 S. Shelby St. Louisville	Mr. H. A. Baker, Supt. 	61	6
LOUISIANA			
Flint Goodridge Hospital of Dillard University ⁸ 2425 Louisiana Ave. New Orleans	Mr. A. W. Dent, Admin.	100	20
MARYLAND			
Provident Hospital and Free Dispensary ³ 1514 Division St. Baltimore	Mr. J. L. Procope, Supt.	129	21
Crownsville State (Insane) Hospital Crownsville	Dr. R. P. Winterode, Med. Supt.	1,621	..
Maryland Tuberculosis Sanatorium Henryton	Dr. Reubin Hoffman, Med. Supt.	495	..
MICHIGAN			
Bethesda Hospital ⁴ 544 Garfield Ave. Detroit	Dr. A. E. Thomas, Sr., Med. Supt.	83	..
Edyth K. Thomas Memorial Hospital ⁴ 556 Garfield Ave. Detroit	Dr. R. E. Thomas, Med. Supt.	136	17

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Fairview Sanatorium 414 Ferry St., E. Detroit	Dr. R. I. Greenidge, Med. Supt.	66	..
Good Samaritan Hospital 503 E. Palmer Ave. Detroit	Mrs. B. B. McKenzie, R.N., Supt.	29	..
Parkside Hospital § 3764 Brush St. Detroit	Mr. F. E. Byrd, Supt.	52	12
Trinity Hospital 681 E. Vernor Highway Detroit	Miss D. J. Curry, Asst. Supt.	100	20
Wayne Diagnostic Hospital 271 Eliot St. Detroit	Dr. D. T. Burton, Med. Dir.	108	30
Sidney A. Sumby Memorial Hospital 600 Palmerston St. River Rouge	Dr. S. B. Milton, Med. Dir.	25	6

MISSISSIPPI

Colored Kings' Daughters' Hospital 1406 Alexander St. Greenville	Orris H. Doolittle, R.N., Supt.	65	2
Greenwood Colored Hosp. 704 Avenue J Greenwood	Miss Neva Jackson, R.N., Supt.	25	4
Dr. Noble's Clinic Clark and Main Sts. Rosedale	Miss Myrle Barbee, Supt.	25	1
Yazoo Clinic and Hospital South and 4th Yazoo City	Dr. Carl Day, Med. Supt.	20	3

MISSOURI

Florence Crittenton Home for Colored Girls 2228 Campbell St. Kansas City	Mrs. A. J. Eaton, R.N., Supt.	52	8
Kansas City General Hosp. No. 2 § 600 E. 22d St. Kansas City	Dr. E. F. Ellis, Med. Supt.	252	24
Wheatley-Provident Hosp. § 1826 Forest St. Kansas City	Dr. Lon M. Tillman, Med. Dir.	67	5
Homer G. Phillips Hosp. § 2601 N. Whittier St. St. Louis	Dr. Wm. H. Sinkler, Med. Dir.	728	49

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
People's Hospital § 2221 Locust St. Louis	Mr. Elmer Mosee, Supt.	83	20
St. Mary's Infirmary § 1536 Papin St. St. Louis	Sister Mary Celeste, R.N., Supt.	146	33
NEW JERSEY			
Community Hospital § 132-134 W. Kinney St. Newark	Mr. J. H. Lewis, Supt.	26	4
NORTH CAROLINA			
Good Samaritan Hospital 411 W. Hill St. Charlotte	Miss E. M. Nixon, R.N., Supt.	87	24
Lincoln Hospital § 1301 Fayetteville St. Durham	Mr. Wm. M. Rich, Supt.	99	23
Gaston County Negro Hospital 726 N. Falls St. Gastonia	Mrs. R. C. Simpson, R.N., Supt.	22	2
State Hospital Goldsboro	Dr. F. L. Whelpley, Med. Supt.	2,500	..
L. Richardson Memorial Hospital § 1400 E. Washington St. Greensboro	Mrs. G. C. Hunt, R.N., Supt.	60	8
Jubilee Hospital 570 Witherspoon St. Henderson	Mrs. E. J. Adams, R.N., Supt.	35	4
Good Shepherd Hospital 20 West St. New Bern	Rev. R. I. Johnson, Supt.	55	4
Susie Clayton Cheatham Memorial Hospital 122 Sycamore St. Oxford	Miss B. S. Broadhust, R.N., Supt.	16	1
McCauley Private Hosp. 513 S. Wilmington St. Raleigh	Dr. L. E. McCauley, Med. Supt.	10	2
St. Agnes Hospital § Oakwood Ave and N. Tarboro St. Raleigh	A. W. Tucker, Admin.	100	18
Community Hospital 11th and Church Sts. Wilmington	Mr. B. P. Adkins, Supt.	125	26

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Mercy Hospital 504 E. Green St. Wilson	Mr. Wm. Hines, Bus. Mgr.	41	2
Kate Billing Reynolds Memorial Hospital (Colored Division of City Hospital) Winston-Salem			
OKLAHOMA			
Great Western Hospital 1824 N.E. 4th St. Oklahoma City	Miss V. M. Boyd, R.N., Supt.	35	2
State Hospital for Negro Insane Taft	Dr. Edna P. Henry, Med. Supt.	750	..
Moton Memorial Hospital 603 E. Pine St. Tulsa	Mrs. D. L. Bush, Supt.	44	10
PENNSYLVANIA			
Frederick Douglass Memorial Hospital 1530 Lombard St. Philadelphia	Dr. Fredk. D. Stubbs, Med. Dir.	87	14
Mercy Hospital³ 5000 Woodland Ave. Philadelphia	Dr. J. H. Graves, Med. Dir.	104	16
SOUTH CAROLINA			
Good Samaritan-Waverly Hospital 2202 Hampton Ave. Columbia	Mr. C. A. Johnson, Supt.	70	12
Working Benevolent Hosp. 510 Green Ave. Greenville	Dr. E. E. McClaren, Admin.	26	4
Brewer Hospital 138 Hospital St. Greenwood	Miss R. M. Goins, R.N., Supt.	32	4
People's Hospital 1719 Vincent St. Newberry	Dr. J. E. Grant, Med. Supt.	15	3
Palmetto Sanatorium (Colored Division of South Carolina Sanatorium) State Park			
TENNESSEE			
Clarksville Home Infirmary 20 Currant St. Clarksville	Dr. R. T. Burt, Med. Supt.	25	3

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Collins Chapel Connectional Hospital 418 Ashland St. Memphis	Dr. Wm. S. Martin, Med. Supt.	60	15
Geo. W. Hubbard Hosp. of Meharry Med. College ³ 1005 18th Ave., N. Nashville	Mr. Henry H. Miller, Supt.	165	21
Riverside Sanitarium and Hospital 800 Young's Lane Nashville	Dr. J. M. Coy, Med. Supt.	26	2
TEXAS			
Holy Cross Hospital 1106 Concho St. Austin	Sister Celine I. C. Heitzman, M.D., Supt.	22	7
Jefferson County Tuberculosis Hospital Fannett Rd. Beaumont	Dr. M. A. Cunningham, Med. Dir. and Supt.	60	..
Pinkston Clinic 3305 Thomas Ave. Dallas	Dr. L. G. Pinkston, Med. Supt.	18	4
Ethel Ransom Memorial Hospital 417 E. 5th St. Ft. Worth	Dr. R. A. Ransom, Sr., Med. Supt.	50	10
Negro Hospital (Unit of John Sealy Hospital) Galveston			
Houston Negro Hospital 2900 Elgin Ave. Houston	Mrs. H. M. Lyttle, R.N., Supt.	63	16
Prairie View State College Hospital ⁴ Prairie View	Dr. H. D. Patton, Med. Supt.	52	4
VIRGINIA			
Piedmont Sanatorium Burkeville	Dr. J. B. Woodson, Med. Supt.	269	..
Loulie Taylor Letcher Memorial Hospital Lawrenceville	Dr. C. F. Nelson, Med. Supt.	18	..
St. Mary Hospital 141 Fayette St. Martinsville	Dr. D. O. Baldwin, Med. Supt.	12	2
Whittaker Memorial Hosp. ⁴ 28th St. and Orcutt Ave. Newport News	Dr. E. S. Grannum, Admin.	57	20
Norfolk Community Hosp. ³ 2539 Carprew Ave. Norfolk	Mr. S. T. Stafford, Supt.	143	38

HOSPITALS FOR NEGROES (Cont.)

Name and Location	Person in Charge	Beds	Bas- sinets
Central State (Insane) Hospital ³ Petersburg	Dr. Meade S. Brent, Med. Supt.	3,374	10
Richmond Community Hospital 1219 Overbrook Rd. Richmond	Mrs. M. T. Peters, Supt.	24	6
St. Philip Hospital (Unit of Medical College of Virginia, Hospital Div.) Marshall St. Richmond		140	10
Burrell Memorial Hosp. ³ 611 McDowell Ave., N.W. Roanoke	Dr. L. C. Downing, Med. Dir. & Supt.	44	4
WEST VIRGINIA			
Brown's Hospital 1201 S. Bland St. Bluefield	Dr. Wm. A. Brown, Med. Dir.	42	3
Providence Hospital 421 Scott St. Bluefield	Mrs. M. P. Rogers, Supt.	25	5
Denmar Sanatorium Denmar	Dr. J. H. Nelson, Jr., Med. Supt.	125	..
Lakin State Hospital ⁴ Lakin	Dr. E. L. Youngue, Med. Supt.	410	2

³ Fully approved by American College of Surgeons.

⁴ Provisionally approved by American College of Surgeons.

⁵ Approved for graduate training in surgery and/or a surgical specialty by the American College of Surgeons.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—The following hospitals were on the approved list of the American Medical Association in June, 1943, but were not on the approved list as of May 1, 1946.

FLORIDA

Good Samaritan Hospital (Unit of Selma Baptist Hospital) 34 Voeglin Ave. Selma	Miss Aileen McCain, R.N., Supt.	35	6
Mercy Hospital 1244 22nd Street St. Petersburg	A. L. Manning, Supt.	46	4
Pine Ridge Hospital 1400 Division Ave. West Palm Beach	Margaret Hurlburt, R.N., Dir.	40	4

MICHIGAN

Mercy General Hospital 668 Winder St. Detroit	Dr. Daisy L. Northcross, Supt.	46	6
St. Aubin General Hosp. 2111 St. Aubin Ave. Detroit	Dr. Ossian H. Sweet, Med. Dir.	48	5

SOME FACTS AND FIGURES ON NEGRO NURSES

Source: National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses and Federal Security Agency

There are approximately 8000 Negro trained nurses in the United States. World War II, with its unprecedented call for trained nurses, brought a number of benefits to Negro women in the nursing field.

With the establishment of the Cadet Nurse Corps, under the United States Public Health Service in June, 1943, Negro nurses were given a greater opportunity than heretofore for training and recognition.

The United States Cadet Nurse Corps, which terminated on October 15, 1945, provided all-expense scholarships and official outdoor uniforms for high school graduates between the ages of 17 and 35, to study nurse training. In addition, monthly allowances were given for spending money ranging from \$15 to \$30.

When the Cadet Nurse Corps terminated, all nurses registered under it were permitted to complete their

course. Courses were completed in from 24 months to 30 months, a shorter but more concentrated period than was given in nurse-training schools heretofore.

Due to this training financed by the government, 2000 more Negro nurses were enrolled in training schools in 1943, an increase of 21 percent over 1942. By May, 1946, there were 4128 Negro nurses in training in the United States Cadet Nurse Corps. Total number in training was 61,471.

As of October, 1945, 67 accredited schools of nursing accepted Negro women for nurse training as against 25 in 1934, and of the 67 schools, 37 train both Negro and white nurses without discrimination. (See list of schools following the text.)

Negro nurses made good progress in public health employment during the war years. The employment of Negro nurses by public health agencies has

SCHOOLS OF NURSING FOR NEGRO STUDENTS

School	Address	Director of Nurses
John A. Andrew Memorial Hospital Freedmen's Hospital	Tuskegee Institute, Ala. Washington, D.C.	Lillian Holland, R.N. Mrs. Marian B. Seymour, R.N., Acting Janet Fisher, R.N.
Brewster Hospital Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College	Jacksonville, Fla.	D. M. Mack, R.N. Annie Feeback, R.N.
Grady Hospital	Tallahassee, Fla.	Alice Stewart, R.N.
University Hospital Lamar School City Hospital	Atlanta, Ga.	Helen Pittman, R.N.
Provident Hospital	Augusta, Ga.	Belva Overton, R.N.
Provident Hospital	Columbus, Ga.	Betty J. Phillips, R.N.
Municipal Hospital No. 2	Chicago, Ill.	Lorenda Harris, R.N.
Homer G. Phillips Hospital	Baltimore, Md.	Henrietta Farrar, R.N.
St. Mary's Infirmary	Kansas City, Mo.	Sister Mary Angela, R.N.
Harlem Hospital	St. Louis, Mo.	Mary Harty, R.N.
Lincoln Hospital	St. Louis, Mo.	Lorraine Denhardt, R.N.
Good Samaritan Hospital	New York, N.Y.	Mary Nickson, R.N.
Lincoln Hospital	New York, N.Y.	Beulah Jackson, R.N.
L. Richardson Memorial Hospital	Charlotte, N.C.	Geneva Hunt, R.N.
St. Agnes Hospital	Durham, N.C.	Rosa M. Godley, R.N.
Kate Bitting Reynolds Memorial Hospital	Greensboro, N.C.	Margaret Moser, R.N. Mary Holloway Pitt, R.N.
Mercy Hospital	Raleigh, N.C.	Alma Gault, R.N.
McHarry Medical College, Geo. W. Hubbard Hospital	Winston-Salem, N.C.	C. A. Randle, R.N.
Prairie View State College Hospital	Philadelphia, Pa.	E. Louise Grant, R.N.
Hampton Institute—Dixie Hospital	Nashville, Tenn.	Rita Miller, R.N.
St. Philip Hospital	Prairie View, Tex.	Hattie L. Oliver, R.N.
Dillard University	Hampton, Va.	Cecile Authier, R.N.
(5-year course leading to B.S. Degree in Nursing)	Richmond, Va.	
Columbia Hospital	New Orleans, La.	
Hampton Institute	Columbia, S.C.	
(4½ years leading to B.S. Degree)	Hampton, Va.	

SCHOOLS OF NURSING FOR NEGRO AND WHITE STUDENTS

School	Address	Director of Nurses
Los Angeles County General Hosp.	Los Angeles, Calif.	Elizabeth Brown, R.N.
Highland School, Highland		
Alameda County Hospital	Oakland, Calif.	Marguerite L. McLean, R.N.
University of California	Medical Center Campus,	Margaret Tracy, R.N.
School of Nursing	San Francisco	Effie Taylor, R.N.
Yale University Hospital	New Haven, Conn.	Sister M. Mechilde, R.N.
St. Francis Hospital	Hartford, Conn.	
Joseph Lawrence School of		
Lawrence and Memorial		
Associated Hospitals	New London, Conn.	Joan M. Wilson, R.N.
Stamford Hospital	Stamford, Conn.	Helen M. Marchant, R.N.
University of Connecticut		
School of Nursing	Storrs, Conn.	Carolyn L. Widmer, R.N.
William W. Backus Hospital	Norwich, Conn.	
Indianapolis City Hospital	Indianapolis, Ind.	Beatrice Gerrin, R.N.
Boston City Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Cecelia Knox, R.N.
Cambridge City Hospital	Cambridge, Mass.	Gertrude Stapleton, R.N.
Cambridge Hospital	Cambridge, Mass.	Mary Shephard, R.N.
Massachusetts General Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Sally Johnson, R.N.
Massachusetts Memorial Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Margaret Dieter, R.N.
Peter Bent Brigham Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Elsa Storn, R.N.
Simmons College of Nursing	Boston, Mass.	Helen Wood, R.N.
New England Baptist Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Nellie H. Pekrul, R.N.
New England Hospital for Women		
and Children		
McLean Hospital	Boston, Mass.	Jean F. Martin, R.N.
University of Minnesota Hospital	Waverley, Mass.	Margaret C. Tibbetts, R.N.
Jersey City Medical Center	Minneapolis, Minn.	Katherine Densford, R.N.
Edward J. Meyer Memorial Hospital	Jersey City, N.J.	Jessie Murdoch, R.N.
Grassland Hospital	Buffalo, N.Y.	Ruth Schlagenhauf, R.N.
Pilgrim State Hospital	Valhalla, N.Y.	Annie E. Grass, R.N.
Brooklyn State Hospital	Brentwood, L.I., N.Y.	Kazamier K. Firth, R.N.
Cumberland Hospital	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Florence R. Unwin, R.N.
Kings County Hospital	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Ella Clendinning, R.N.
Fordham Hospital	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Anne Johnson, R.N.
Flushing Hospital	Bronx, N.Y.	Elsie Palmer, R.N.
Bellevue Hospital	Flushing, N.Y.	Katherine M. O'Donnell, R.N.
Metropolitan Hospital	New York, N.Y.	Blanche Edwards, R.N.
New York Post-Graduate Hospital	New York, N.Y.	Ella P. Rosencrance, R.N.
(Skidmore College)		
Presbyterian Hospital	New York, N.Y.	Agnes Gelinas, R.N.
City Hospital of Cleveland	New York, N.Y.	Margaret E. Conrad, R.N.
Philadelphia General Hospital	Cleveland, O.	
University of Pittsburgh School	Philadelphia, Pa.	Loretta M. Johnson, R.N.
of Nursing		
Cook County Hospital	Pittsburgh, Pa.	Ruth Perkins Kuehn, R.N.
Adelphi College Hospital	Chicago, Ill.	Edna Newman, R.N.
	Garden City, L.I., N.Y.	

doubled in the last six years. In 1943 a total of 918 were employed in this field, and in 1945 this number was increased to 1101, of which 925 were in official agencies and 176 in non-official. (See list following the text.)

The greatest increase in public health employment took place in New York City, where more than 300 Negroes are in the city's health department as a result of competitive examinations. Approximately nine of these are supervisors. In 1944, more than 1250 were serving as staff nurses, head nurses, administrators, supervisors and instructors in nonsegregated hospitals in New York.

Among other items of progress made by Negro nurses, largely through the

work of the National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses, was their recognition by federal agencies. A Negro consultant was appointed to the advisory committee of the Nurses Education Division of the United States Health Service and another was made a member of the committee. The Children's Bureau appointed a Negro representative to the advisory committee of the Maternal and Child Health Services and to the National Commission on the Care of Children in Wartime.

In the South, some progress was also noted. The Medical College of Virginia now offers a degree course to Negro students in its public health school. Recently the Tennessee League

**THE NUMBER OF NEGRO ⁶ PUBLIC HEALTH NURSES EMPLOYED
BY OFFICIAL AND NONOFFICIAL AGENCIES IN THE VARI-
OUS STATES ON JANUARY 1, 1943, AND 1945**

State	1943			1945		
	Total Nurses	Number Employed by Official Agencies	Number Employed by Non- official Agencies	Total Nurses	Number Employed by Official Agencies	Number Employed by Non- official Agencies
Total	918	751	167	1,101	925	176
Alabama	50	49	1	51	50	1
Arizona	1	1
Arkansas	11	10	1	12	10	2
California	6	5	1	11	8	3
Colorado
Connecticut	2	..	2	1	1	..
Delaware	5	5	..	5	4	1
District of Columbia	51	37	14	57	41	16
Florida	25	24	1	28	25	3
Georgia	66	57	9	67	61	6
Idaho
Illinois	30	28	2	85	68	17
Indiana	10	9	1	10	9	1
Iowa
Kansas	4	4	..	4	4	..
Kentucky	28	18	10	21	19	2
Louisiana	12	12	..	18	18	..
Maine
Maryland	24	24	..	36	36	..
Massachusetts
Michigan	29	18	11	37	23	14
Minnesota	2	..	2
Mississippi	5	5	..	3	3	..
Missouri	60	46	14	60	46	14
Montana
Nebraska	3	..	3	1	..	1
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey ⁷	28	17	11	18	14	4
New Mexico
New York	209	177	32	282	241	41
North Carolina	47	46	1	43	43	..
North Dakota
Ohio	17	17	..	20	20	..
Oklahoma	17	15	2	19	16	3
Oregon
Pennsylvania	34	20	14	38	28	10
Rhode Island
South Carolina	13	7	6	27	22	5
South Dakota
Tennessee	36	34	2	34	34	..
Texas	48	39	9	45	36	9
Utah
Vermont
Virginia	42	23	19	62	41	21
Washington
West Virginia	5	4	1	4	4	..
Wisconsin
Wyoming

⁶ The total number of nurses, Negro and white, employed by public health agencies in the United States and its territories in 1945 was 20,818.

⁷ No report received from New Jersey in 1944.

of Nursing Education voted to accept Negro nurses to its membership. In Nashville, a Negro nurse has been appointed a consultant to the city's health department.

Negro nurses are still generally refused membership in the state and local branches of the National League of Nursing Education and other white nursing organizations.

Approximately 400 Negro nurses served in the Army in World War II as against 18 in World War I. Two units were sent overseas, one to Liberia, and the other to England. The Navy, after much agitation, opened its doors to Negro nurses in 1945, shortly before the war ended. To date four have been taken into this service.

NATIONAL NEGRO HEALTH MOVEMENT

The annual National Negro Health Week is observed during one week in April of each year.

This nation-wide program is sponsored by the United States Public Health Service, in co-operation with state, county, and city health departments, and various voluntary health and civic organizations.

The week is a period of emphasis and demonstration, while the National Negro Health Movement is a year-round service conducted by governmental agencies, which act as a clearing house for the dissemination of health information.

Heading the Health Week committee as its chairman is Dr. Roscoe C. Brown, specialist in health education, United States Public Health Service. Its secretary is R. Maurice Moss, executive secretary of the Pittsburgh Urban League.

Several awards are given annually in connection with the observance of Health Week: the All-American Trophy, to the community or county which submits the best organized and illus-

trated report of achievement in the movement; the Poster Contest Trophy, to the school which submits the best design for a poster adaptable for illustration of the ensuing year's Health Week publication; the Progress Trophy, for any community satisfactorily reporting excellence in the Health Week observance for three years in succession; and the Activities and Award Medals, for competitive Health Week events.

Among the projects conducted each year under the program are the cleaning up of homes and lots, insect control activities, improvement of out-houses, lectures, sermons, radio talks, distribution of literature, newspaper articles, motion pictures, clinical treatments, plays, pageants, games, and athletics.

The National Negro Health Movement was initiated by Booker T. Washington, founder of Tuskegee Institute, who was the first person to effectively interest the public in organizing to work toward the prevention of diseases prevalent among Negroes.

LABOR AND INDUSTRY

OCCUPATIONS OF WHITES, NEGROES, AND OTHER RACIAL GROUPS: MARCH, 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

Striking differences between the occupations of whites and Negroes were shown in 1940 census statistics. Farmers, farm laborers, and other laborers constituted 62.2 percent of all employed Negro men and only 28.5 percent of all employed white men.

Only about five percent of all employed Negro men, compared with approximately 30 percent of employed white men, were engaged in professional, semiprofessional, proprietary, managerial, and clerical or sales occupations.

Skilled craftsmen represented 15.6 percent of employed white men and only 4.4 percent of employed Negro men. More than half of the Negro craftsmen were mechanics, carpenters, painters, plasterers and cement finishers, and masons.

Equally large differences are shown between the occupations of white and Negro women. Almost 70 percent of employed Negro women, as compared with 22.4 percent of employed white women, were engaged in service occupations. Clerical and sales workers constituted almost one third of employed white women but only about one percent of employed Negro women.

The proportion of employed white women who were operatives (20.3 percent) was more than three times that for employed Negro women (6.2 percent). Almost 16 percent of employed

Negro women and only about 2 percent of employed white women were farmers or farm laborers.

Table 1 shows the numbers of persons by race for each occupation. These figures focus attention upon differences among occupations in employment opportunities for members of minority groups. They show, for example, that employment opportunities for Negroes were extremely small in skilled craft occupations as a whole, since Negroes constituted only 2.6 percent of all men employed in this major group.

In certain specific craft occupations, however, opportunities for Negroes were much greater. For example, of all men employed as plasterers and cement finishers, molders, and masons, 14.8, 7.9, and 7.2 percent, respectively, were Negroes.

Content of Table

Table 1 shows the persons 14 years old and over who were employed (except on public emergency work) during the census week of March 24-30, 1940. The three racial groups for which figures are shown are white, Negro, and other races. The group designated "Other Races" includes American Indians, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, and small numbers of other races.

NOTE: Table 1 gives male and female employed persons separately.

TABLE 1.—RACE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK), BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

Occupation and Sex	Employed (Exc. on Pub. Emerg. Work)			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
MALE	34,027,905	30,931,506	2,936,795	159,604
Professional and semiprofessional workers..	1,875,387	1,818,233	53,312	3,842
Actors	6,931	6,618	229	84
Architects	19,899	19,793	80	26
Artists and art teachers.....	34,478	34,095	232	151
Authors, editors, and reporters.....	51,523	50,978	391	145
Chemists, assayers, and metallurgists.....	55,371	55,057	254	60
Clergymen	133,449	115,958	17,102	389
College presidents, professors, and instructors....	55,123	53,664	1,408	51
Dentists	69,074	67,470	1,463	141
Civil engineers	80,171	80,008	95	68
Electrical engineers	53,103	52,991	79	33
Mechanical engineers	82,255	82,156	54	45
Other technical engineers.....	29,029	29,005	10	14
Lawyers and judges.....	173,456	172,329	1,013	114
Musicians and music teachers.....	69,800	64,517	4,983	300
Osteopaths	4,905	4,897	5	3
Pharmacists	76,131	75,250	769	112
Physicians and surgeons.....	157,041	153,388	3,395	258
Social and welfare workers.....	24,868	23,913	916	39
Teachers (n. e. c.) (including county agents)....	253,561	239,495	13,585	481
Trained nurses and student nurses.....	7,509	7,377	121	11
Veterinarians	10,638	10,548	84	6
Other professional workers.....	62,803	62,353	271	179
Dancers, showmen, and athletes.....	31,147	29,711	1,338	98
Designers and draftsmen.....	91,820	91,606	125	89
Surveyors	13,243	13,174	47	22
Other semiprofessional workers.....	228,059	221,873	5,263	923
Farmers and farm managers.....	4,991,715	4,339,092	620,479	32,144
Proprietors, managers, and officials, exc. farm.	3,325,767	3,274,630	37,240	13,897
Conductors, railroad	46,185	46,139	43	3
Postmasters, and misc. government officials.....	198,377	197,541	693	143
Other specified managers and officials.....	272,448	267,936	3,981	531
Props., mgrs., and officials (n. e. c.), by industry:				
Mining	30,447	30,388	37	22
Construction	113,898	112,532	1,339	27
Manufacturing	402,506	401,366	841	299
Transportation, communication, and utilities..	134,232	133,343	818	71
Wholesale trade	227,334	222,779	3,589	966
Eating and drinking places.....	200,519	191,402	6,410	2,707
Retail trade, exc. eating and drinking places..	1,242,323	1,223,551	13,467	5,305
Finance, insurance, and real estate.....	174,668	173,647	907	114
Business and repair services.....	82,288	81,228	895	165
Personal services	91,572	56,356	2,016	3,200
Miscellaneous industries and services.....	108,970	106,422	2,204	344
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers.....	4,360,648	4,293,096	58,557	8,995
Baggage men, express messengers, and ry. mail clerks	27,759	26,843	911	5
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, and ticket agts.	447,606	445,934	907	765
Mail carriers	119,246	113,542	5,642	62
Messengers, except express.....	65,544	60,165	5,321	58
Office machine operators.....	8,284	8,176	100	8
Shipping and receiving clerks.....	200,669	195,579	4,915	175
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries.....	68,805	68,187	467	151
Telegraph operators	31,554	31,515	35	4
Telephone operators	10,697	10,440	245	12
Other clerical and kindred workers.....	1,256,689	1,238,541	16,470	1,678
Canvassers and solicitors.....	72,995	72,098	831	66
Hucksters and peddlers.....	48,357	44,637	3,456	264
Newsboys	53,313	51,975	1,264	74
Insurance agents and brokers.....	226,061	221,130	4,744	187
Real estate agents and brokers.....	100,856	99,716	1,086	54
Other sales agents and brokers.....	600,884	598,962	1,160	762
Other salesmen	1,021,329	1,005,656	11,003	4,670
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers...	4,949,132	4,814,327	129,736	5,069

1 "N. e. c." means not elsewhere classified.

**RACE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK),
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

Occupation and Sex	Employed (Exc. on Pub. Emerg. Work)			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
MALE (Cont.)				
Bakers	119,039	115,693	3,149	197
Blacksmiths, forgemen, and hammermen.....	72,034	68,652	3,309	73
Boilermakers	27,589	27,066	506	17
Cabinetmakers and pattern makers.....	81,263	80,209	997	57
Carpenters	556,918	535,469	20,798	651
Compositors and typesetters.....	150,647	149,049	1,392	206
Electricians	196,526	195,209	1,231	86
Foremen (n. e. c.), by industry.....	486,614	482,822	3,308	484
Construction	45,394	44,982	331	81
Manufacturing	262,851	261,373	1,369	109
Transportation, communication, and utilities..	92,366	91,564	604	198
Miscellaneous industries and services.....	86,003	84,903	1,004	96
Inspectors (n. e. c.) ¹	66,125	65,751	343	31
Locomotive engineers	69,496	69,091	398	7
Locomotive firemen	43,851	41,574	2,263	14
Machinists, millwrights, and tool makers.....	604,706	600,060	4,400	246
Masons, tile setters, and stonecutters.....	102,089	94,600	7,370	119
Mechanics and repairmen, and loom fixers.....	859,491	832,282	26,226	983
Molders, metal	75,359	69,576	5,962	21
Painters (construction), paperhangers, and glaziers	350,372	337,000	13,069	303
Plasterers and cement finishers.....	51,926	44,181	7,704	41
Plumbers and gas and steam fitters.....	173,385	169,623	3,671	91
Printing craftsmen, exc. compositors and typesetters	60,830	60,527	266	37
Rollers and roll hands, metal.....	26,439	25,328	1,107	4
Roofers and sheet metal workers.....	103,715	102,128	1,549	38
Shoemakers and repairers (not in factory).....	59,609	55,915	3,556	138
Stationary engineers, cranimen, and hoistmen....	285,352	280,556	4,463	333
Structural and ornamental metal workers.....	27,769	26,897	811	61
Tailors and furriers.....	105,022	100,867	3,965	190
Other craftsmen and kindred workers.....	192,766	184,202	7,923	641
Operatives and kindred workers.....	6,205,898	5,822,253	368,005	15,640
Apprentices	81,807	80,970	759	78
Attendants, filling station, parking lot, and airport.	209,449	193,179	16,072	198
Brakemen and switchmen, railroad.....	107,432	104,678	2,739	15
Chauffeurs, truck drivers, and deliverymen.....	1,499,972	1,360,183	137,121	2,668
Conductors, bus and street railway.....	16,751	16,650	101	..
Dressmakers and seamstresses (not in factory)....	2,324	2,140	170	14
Firemen, except locomotive and fire department....	112,612	98,533	13,861	218
Laundry operatives and laundresses, exc. priv. fam.	48,296	33,267	8,440	6,589
Linemen and servicemen, telegraph, telephone, power	103,501	102,865	604	32
Mine operatives and laborers.....	649,226	599,061	49,177	988
Motormen, railway, mine, factory, etc.....	53,281	52,111	1,166	4
Painters, except construction and maintenance....	82,768	80,135	2,595	38
Power station operators.....	21,285	21,143	113	29
Sailors and deck hands, except U. S. Navy.....	35,221	32,144	2,703	374
Welders and flame-cutters.....	122,688	121,604	999	85
Other specified operatives and kindred workers....	390,056	375,266	13,303	1,487
Operatives and kindred workers (n. e. c.), by industry:				
Manufacturing	2,303,054	2,221,946	79,420	1,688
Food and kindred products.....	200,298	185,749	14,073	476
Tobacco manufactures	20,225	15,140	5,077	8
Cotton manufactures	188,695	185,556	3,126	13
Silk and rayon manufactures.....	33,925	33,842	82	1
Woolen and worsted manufactures.....	52,226	52,010	169	47
Knit goods	56,887	56,699	184	4
Other textile-mill products.....	68,011	66,803	1,188	20
Apparel and other fabricated textile products..	130,832	128,119	2,550	163
Lumber, furniture, and lumber products.....	150,344	136,980	13,123	241
Paper, paper products, and printing.....	136,637	133,547	3,026	64
Chemicals, and petroleum and coal products...	117,068	109,844	7,163	61
Rubber products	55,758	54,661	1,091	6
Footwear industries, except rubber.....	106,724	106,359	343	22
Leather and leather products, except footwear.	45,947	44,907	1,023	17
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	88,165	84,848	3,268	49
Iron and steel, and not spec. metal industries..	263,837	251,751	12,010	76
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	52,849	51,688	1,084	77

¹ Most inspectors in manufacturing are classified as operatives.

**RACE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK),
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

Occupation and Sex	Employed (Exc. on Pub. Emerg. Work)			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
MALE (Cont.)				
Machinery	198,523	196,965	1,491	67
Automobiles and automobile equipment.....	173,283	168,285	4,876	122
Transportation equipment, except automobile..	58,682	56,065	2,554	63
Other manufacturing industries.....	104,138	102,128	1,919	91
Nonmanufacturing industries and services.....	366,175	326,378	38,662	1,135
Domestic service workers.....	142,231	50,687	85,566	5,978
Protective service workers.....	677,213	659,853	16,001	1,359
Firemen, fire department.....	77,782	77,258	519	5
Guards and watchmen.....	210,004	201,697	8,056	251
Policemen, sheriffs, and marshals.....	169,502	167,745	1,533	224
Soldiers, sailors, marines, and coast guards.....	219,925	213,153	5,893	879
Service workers, exc. domestic and protective	1,519,482	1,151,001	346,423	22,058
Barbers, beauticians, and manicurists.....	209,439	195,419	13,447	573
Boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers.....	10,494	9,405	959	130
Janitors and porters.....	499,519	303,156	193,879	2,484
Cooks, except private family.....	160,336	117,788	35,918	6,630
Elevator operators.....	64,120	52,278	11,586	266
Housekeepers, stewards, exc. priv. family.....	16,824	15,491	1,146	187
Practical nurses and midwives.....	3,909	3,473	432	4
Servants, except private family.....	141,429	102,248	33,642	5,539
Waiters and bartenders.....	281,354	241,943	33,851	5,560
Other service workers, exc. domestic and protective	132,058	109,800	21,563	695
Farm laborers and foremen.....	2,770,005	2,151,114	581,763	37,128
Farm laborers (wage workers) and farm foremen..	1,828,164	1,385,127	413,574	29,463
Farm laborers (unpaid family workers).....	941,841	765,987	168,189	7,665
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	2,965,693	2,329,507	623,641	12,545
Fishermen and oystermen.....	54,876	49,137	4,510	1,229
Longshoremen and stevedores.....	63,241	42,912	20,279	50
Lumbermen, raftsmen, and woodchoppers.....	127,497	98,283	27,617	1,597
Other specified laborers.....	222,194	173,014	46,219	2,961
Laborers (n. e. c.), by industry:				
Construction	435,808	351,617	82,771	1,420
Manufacturing	1,237,239	981,342	253,781	2,116
Food and kindred products.....	133,945	113,449	20,078	418
Textiles, textile products, and apparel.....	72,943	61,649	11,269	25
Lumber, furniture, and lumber products.....	252,922	155,872	96,082	968
Paper, paper products, and printing.....	55,037	47,151	7,831	55
Chemicals, and petroleum and coal products..	105,122	72,349	32,676	97
Leather and leather products.....	20,200	18,895	1,293	12
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	88,131	73,767	14,276	88
Iron and steel and not spec. metal industries..	260,725	219,837	40,818	70
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	39,012	35,631	3,286	95
Machinery	66,752	63,384	3,343	25
Automobiles and automobile equipment.....	54,302	47,015	7,230	57
Transportation equipment, except automobile..	28,572	22,980	5,421	171
Other manufacturing industries.....	59,576	49,363	10,178	35
Nonmanufacturing	824,838	633,202	188,464	3,172
Railroads (including railroad repair shops)...	211,660	163,283	47,370	1,007
Transportation, except railroads.....	83,483	64,065	19,351	67
Communication and utilities.....	85,154	69,694	15,388	72
Wholesale and retail trade.....	202,816	160,906	41,216	694
Personal services	14,758	10,928	3,686	144
Other nonmanufacturing industries and services	226,967	164,326	61,453	1,188
Occupation not reported.....	244,734	227,713	16,072	949
FEMALE	11,138,178	9,563,583	1,542,273	32,322
Professional and semiprofessional workers..	1,469,661	1,402,246	65,888	1,527
Actresses	4,761	4,545	192	24
Artists and art teachers.....	17,507	17,381	95	31
Authors, editors, and reporters.....	18,536	18,402	113	21
College presidents, professors, and instructors....	19,864	18,943	931	10
Dentists, pharmacists, osteopaths, veterinarians...	5,444	5,309	123	12

* 3 Excludes commissioned officers, professional and clerical workers, and craftsmen.

**RACE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK),
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

Occupation and Sex	Employed (Exc. on Pub. Emerg. Work)			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
FEMALE (Cont.)				
Lawyers and judges.....	4,187	4,146	39	2
Librarians	32,546	32,117	412	17
Musicians and music teachers.....	59,456	57,424	1,960	72
Physicians and surgeons.....	7,608	7,457	129	22
Social and welfare workers.....	44,809	43,081	1,692	36
Teachers (n. e. c.) (including county agents).....	776,440	725,698	50,112	630
Trained nurses and student nurses.....	348,277	341,162	6,680	435
Other professional workers.....	31,019	30,155	819	45
Designers and draftsmen.....	9,105	9,025	72	8
Other semiprofessional workers.....	90,082	87,401	2,519	162
Farmers and farm managers.....	151,899	103,920	46,216	1,763
Proprietors, managers, and officials, exc. farm	423,520	411,277	10,914	1,329
Miscellaneous specified managers and officials.....	96,835	95,794	895	146
Props., mgrs., and officials (n. e. c.), by industry:				
Manufacturing	17,862	17,755	76	31
Eating and drinking places.....	65,064	59,921	4,853	290
Other wholesale and retail trade.....	168,991	164,500	3,955	536
Personal services	31,655	30,776	584	295
Miscellaneous industries and services.....	43,113	42,531	551	31
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers.....	3,156,982	3,132,410	20,765	3,807
Bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, and ticket agts.	448,359	445,691	2,127	541
Office machine operators.....	51,454	51,356	92	6
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries.....	988,081	983,321	4,110	650
Telegraph operators	8,228	8,220	8	..
Telephone operators	189,002	188,667	259	76
Other clerical and kindred workers.....	690,379	683,195	6,549	635
Canvassers, peddlers, and news vendors.....	20,494	19,433	1,042	19
Insurance agents and brokers.....	13,081	12,066	1,010	5
Real estate agents and brokers.....	10,254	10,131	120	3
Other sales agents and brokers.....	13,427	13,250	158	19
Other saleswomen	724,223	717,080	5,290	1,853
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers..	106,590	103,994	2,374	222
Compositors and typesetters.....	7,425	7,260	132	33
Foremen (n. e. c.), except farm.....	35,790	35,515	267	8
Other craftsmen and kindred workers.....	63,375	61,219	1,975	181
Operatives and kindred workers.....	2,046,379	1,942,245	96,190	7,944
Dressmakers and seamstresses (not in factory)....	133,627	122,017	11,270	340
Laundry operatives and laundresses, exc. priv. fam.	167,967	127,984	39,294	689
Other specified operatives and kindred workers....	61,697	58,713	2,795	189
Operatives and kindred wkrs. (n. e. c.), by industry:				
Manufacturing	1,596,579	1,554,535	35,644	6,400
Food and kindred products.....	112,770	106,723	5,638	409
Tobacco manufactures	51,658	40,805	10,850	3
Cotton manufactures	167,155	166,655	484	16
Silk and rayon manufactures.....	42,058	41,965	93	..
Woolen and worsted manufactures.....	51,538	49,817	101	1,620
Knit goods	115,106	114,559	524	23
Other textile-mill products.....	46,788	43,322	783	2,683
Apparel and other fabricated textile products..	447,831	435,955	11,343	533
Lumber, furniture, and lumber products.....	24,154	22,857	1,058	239
Paper, paper products, and printing.....	76,361	75,593	754	14
Chemicals, and petroleum and coal products...	32,381	31,934	441	6
Rubber products	22,471	22,408	63	..
Footwear industries, except rubber.....	91,251	91,161	76	14
Leather and leather products, except footwear.	24,765	24,569	189	7
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	25,353	24,832	118	403
Iron, steel, nonferrous metal prod., & machinery	147,446	147,011	418	17
Transportation equipment	27,800	27,720	77	3
Other manufacturing industries.....	89,693	86,649	2,634	410
Nonmanufacturing industries and services.....	86,509	78,996	7,187	326
Domestic service workers.....	1,969,083	1,045,726	917,942	5,415
Protective service workers.....	4,321	4,153	163	5
Service workers, exc. domestic and protective	1,257,318	1,093,887	159,642	3,789

**RACE OF EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK),
BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940 (Cont.)**

Occupation and Sex	Employed (Exc. on Pub. Emerg. Work)			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
FEMALE (Cont.)				
Barbers, beauticians, and manicurists.....	206,592	191,399	14,782	411
Boardinghouse and lodginghouse keepers.....	100,355	86,446	13,607	302
Charwomen, janitors, and porters.....	76,105	63,546	12,457	102
Clarks, except private family.....	116,310	88,975	26,738	597
Elevator operators.....	12,686	9,381	3,294	11
Housekeepers, stewards, hostesses, exc. priv. family	62,351	59,003	3,010	338
Practical nurses and midwives.....	87,198	76,107	11,015	76
Servants, except private family.....	174,724	117,728	56,450	546
Waitresses and bartenders.....	359,136	342,807	15,293	1,036
Other service wkr., exc. domestic and protective..	61,861	58,495	2,996	370
Farm laborers and foremen.....	320,005	115,572	198,549	5,884
Farm laborers (wage workers) and farm foremen..	96,726	25,161	70,211	1,354
Farm laborers (unpaid family workers).....	223,279	90,411	128,338	4,530
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	98,435	85,213	12,959	263
Miscellaneous specified laborers.....	3,027	2,159	813	55
Laborers (n. e. c.), manufacturing industries.....	72,661	66,067	6,491	103
Laborers (n. e. c.), nonmfg. industries and services	22,747	16,987	5,655	105
Occupation not reported.....	133,985	122,940	10,671	374

**EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PERSONS 14 YEARS
OLD AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES:
MARCH 24-30, 1940**

A little over half of the 101,102,924 persons 14 years old and over in the United States were in the nation's labor force at the time of the 1940 census. Native white persons constituted 78.4 percent of the nation's labor force in March, 1940, and foreign-born whites made up 11.0 percent of the total. Negroes represented 10.2 percent and the 230,919 workers of other non-white races amounted to only 0.4 percent of the labor force.

The labor force is defined in the 1940 census on the basis of activity during the week of March 24 to 30, and includes only persons reported as at work, those with a job, those seek-

ing work, or those on public emergency projects in that week.

Certain classes of persons, such as retired workers, some inmates of institutions, recently incapacitated workers, and seasonal workers, neither working nor seeking work at the time of the census, were frequently included among gainful workers in 1930, but in general such persons were not included in the 1940 labor force. On the other hand, the 1940 labor force includes persons seeking work who had no previous work experience, that is, new workers, and persons reported as in the labor force for whom occupation was not entered on the schedule.

TABLE 2.—PERSONS 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, RACE AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

(Note: Foreign-born white and other nonwhite races not listed in table, but included in the first column.)

Source: Condensed from Bureau of the Census tables

	All Classes		Native White		Negro	
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female
Employment Status						
Total population (all ages).....	131,669,275	106,795,732	53,437,533	53,358,199	12,865,518	6,269,038
Persons 14 and over.....	101,102,924	80,076,985	39,846,389	40,230,596	9,259,444	4,474,211
Persons 14 and over.....	52,789,499	41,371,313	31,377,403	9,993,910	5,389,191	3,582,005
In labor force.....	48,313,425	38,705,672	8,468,986	30,236,686	3,870,253	892,206
Not in labor force.....	28,931,869	23,120,980	204,029	22,916,951	2,024,215	21,269
Engaged in own home housework.....	9,013,342	8,099,944	4,161,434	3,938,510	747,716	343,372
In school.....	5,268,727	3,562,013	2,023,445	1,538,568	602,381	259,950
Unable to work.....	1,176,993	825,868	524,089	301,779	163,045	125,195
In institutions.....	3,922,494	3,096,867	1,555,989	1,540,878	332,896	142,420
Other and not reported.....						
LABOR FORCE BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS						
In labor force.....	52,789,499	41,371,313	31,377,403	9,993,910	5,389,191	3,582,005
Employed (except public emergency work).....	45,166,083	35,468,464	26,803,122	8,645,342	4,479,068	2,936,795
At work.....	44,045,137	34,578,162	26,177,421	8,392,741	4,403,794	2,893,204
With a job (temporarily absent from work).....	1,120,946	878,302	625,701	252,601	75,274	43,591
On public emergency work (WPA, etc.).....	2,529,606	2,024,795	1,643,960	380,835	319,241	259,073
Seeking work.....	5,093,810	3,908,054	2,930,321	967,233	500,882	386,137
Experienced workers.....	4,376,469	3,215,470	2,518,076	697,394	525,909	347,388
New workers.....	767,341	682,584	412,245	270,339	64,973	38,749
EMPLOYED WORKERS BY CLASS OF WORKER						
Employed (except public emergency).....	45,166,083	35,468,464	26,803,122	8,645,342	4,479,068	2,936,795
Wage and salary workers.....	33,726,151	26,583,000	18,913,442	7,669,558	3,251,549	2,022,041
Employers and own-account workers.....	9,756,761	7,596,699	6,945,896	650,803	905,688	734,728
Unpaid family workers.....	1,444,090	1,072,309	828,953	243,356	302,888	170,051
Class of worker not reported.....	239,081	196,456	114,831	81,625	18,943	9,975

TABLE 3.—PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF PERSONS 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, CLASS OF WORKER, RACE AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940

Employment Status	All Classes			Race			
	Total	Male	Female	Native White		Negro	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Persons 14 years old and over.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In labor force.....	52.2	79.0	25.4	78.7	24.8	80.1	37.8
Not in labor force.....	47.8	21.0	74.6	21.3	75.2	19.9	62.2
Engaged in own home housework..	28.6	0.5	56.7	0.5	57.0	0.5	41.9
In school	8.9	9.1	8.7	10.4	9.8	7.7	8.4
Unable to work.....	5.2	5.9	4.6	5.1	3.8	5.8	7.2
In institutions	1.2	1.5	0.8	1.3	0.8	2.8	0.8
Other and not reported.....	3.9	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.2	4.0

LABOR FORCE BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS

	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In labor force.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employed (exc. public emergency work)	85.6	85.2	86.7	85.4	86.5	82.0	85.3
At work	83.4	83.2	84.3	83.4	84.0	80.8	83.6
With a job.....	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.0	2.5	1.2	1.8
On pub. emergency work (WPA, etc.)	4.8	5.2	3.6	5.2	3.8	7.2	3.3
Seeking work	9.6	9.6	9.7	9.3	9.7	10.8	11.3
Experienced workers	8.2	8.5	7.4	8.0	7.0	9.7	9.9
New workers	1.5	1.2	2.4	1.3	2.7	1.1	1.5

EMPLOYED WORKERS BY CLASS OF WORKER

	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employed (exc. pub. emergency work)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wage and salary workers.....	74.7	70.7	86.9	70.6	88.7	68.9	79.7
Employers and own-account workers	21.6	25.9	8.4	25.9	7.5	25.0	11.1
Unpaid family workers.....	3.2	3.0	3.8	3.1	2.8	5.8	8.6
Class of worker not reported.....	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.4	0.9	0.3	0.6

TABLE 4.—PERCENT DISTRIBUTION BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP FOR EMPLOYED PERSONS (EXCEPT ON PUBLIC EMERGENCY WORK), BY RACE AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES BY REGIONS: 1940

(Percent not shown where less than 0.1)

Area and Major Occupation Group United States	Employed (Except on Emergency Work)							
	Total		White		Negro		Other Races	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional workers	4.4	12.3	4.7	13.7	1.6	4.1	1.7	4.2
Semiprofessional workers	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.5
Farmers and farm managers..	14.7	1.4	14.0	1.1	21.1	3.0	20.1	5.5
Proprietors, managers, and officials, except farm.....	9.8	3.8	10.6	4.3	1.3	0.7	8.7	4.1
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	12.8	28.3	13.9	32.8	2.0	1.3	5.6	11.8
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	14.5	1.0	15.6	1.1	4.4	0.2	3.2	0.7
Operatives and kindred workers	18.2	18.4	18.8	20.3	12.5	6.2	9.8	24.6
Domestic service workers....	0.4	17.7	0.2	10.9	2.9	59.5	3.7	16.8
Protective service workers....	2.0	..	2.1	..	0.5	..	0.9	..
Service workers, except domestic and protective.....	4.5	11.3	3.7	11.4	11.8	10.4	13.8	11.7
Farm laborers (wage workers) and farm foremen.....	5.4	0.9	4.5	0.3	14.1	4.6	18.5	4.2
Farm laborers (unpaid family workers)	2.8	2.0	2.5	0.9	5.7	8.3	4.8	14.0
Laborers, except farm.....	8.7	0.9	7.5	0.9	21.2	0.8	7.9	0.8
Occupation not reported.....	0.7	1.2	0.7	1.3	0.5	0.7	0.6	1.2

DEFENSE AND WARTIME EMPLOYMENT

Source: United States Department of Labor

The defense and wartime civilian employment of Negroes increased by approximately 1,000,000 jobs between April, 1940, and April, 1944, it was reported by the United States Department of Labor in January, 1945.

The employment of Negro men rose from 2,900,000 to 3,200,000 during the four-year period, and the number of employed Negro women increased from 1,500,000 to 2,100,000. The Negroes' greatest employment advances were made in those occupations, industries, and areas in which the postwar adjustment will be most severe.

"The 700,000 Negroes in the Army have their civilian counterpart in the more than 5½ million Negro workers in the United States," the Labor Department report stated.

This civilian labor force has experienced marked changes in both its occupational and industrial attributes, which are significant as indicators not only of wartime change but also of postwar employment opportunities.

The outstanding changes in Negro employment that occurred during the four-year period were a marked movement from the farms to the factories (particularly to those making munitions of war), a substantial amount of upgrading for Negro workers, but little change in the proportions occupied in unskilled jobs. As the Negroes' greatest employment advances have been made in precisely those occupations, industries, and areas in which the postwar adjustment will be most severe, the extent to which these gains can be retained will be largely dependent upon the maintenance of a high level of postwar employment.

Changes in Occupations

The proportion of the employed

male Negro labor force on farms declined from 47 percent in April, 1940, to 28 percent in April, 1944, or by 19 points; the proportion in industry increased by the same amount. The remainder of the major occupational groups showed changes of not more than about 1 point between 1940 and 1944.

The shift from the farm to the factory is by far the most outstanding change that took place in the male Negro labor force during the war. Between 1940 and 1944, the number of Negroes employed as skilled craftsmen and foremen doubled, as did the number engaged as "operatives," i.e. performing basic semiskilled factory operations.

Altogether, the number in both categories rose from about 500,000 to a total of about 1,000,000 during the four years covering the national defense program and the entry of the United States into the war. In contrast, the number on farms, either as farm operators or laborers, decreased by about 300,000. In terms of the total numbers involved the other changes were small.

The number of Negro men working as proprietors, managers, and officials increased 50 percent in the four-year period, but in April, 1944, still had not reached 75,000.

Slightly over 7 of every 10 employed Negro women were in some service activity in April, 1940, and the great majority of these were domestic servants. After four years, the proportion in the services had decreased only slightly, although a significant internal shift had occurred.

The proportion working as domestic servants showed a marked decrease, while those engaged in the personal services, e.g. as beauticians, cooks, waitresses, et cetera, showed a corresponding increase. It is interesting to note, in this connection, that the

actual number of Negro domestics showed a slight increase between 1940 and 1944 (about 50,000), but it was not enough to counterbalance the decline of 400,000 among white domestic servants.

As among the men, the most pronounced occupational shift among Negro women was the shift from the farm to the factory. In April, 1940, 16 percent of the entire female Negro labor force was on farms; four years later, that proportion had been halved. The total number of Negro women employed had increased by about a third; the number employed on farms had decreased by about 30 percent. On the other hand, Negro women employed as craftsmen and foremen and as factory operatives almost quadrupled during the same period.

No significant changes occurred in any of the other major occupational groups. Percentage increases were large; the number of Negro women working as proprietors, managers, and officials tripled; those working as saleswomen almost doubled, and those engaged as clerical workers rose to a number five times as great as in April, 1940. The actual numbers involved were very small, however, and made little difference in the occupational distribution of the employed Negro women.

Position in Labor Force, 1940 and 1944

It is evident from the foregoing that Negro workers have experienced a considerable amount of upgrading; by April, 1944, both men and women were engaged in skilled and semiskilled factory operations which few had performed before the war. Nevertheless, a considerable proportion of the Negro labor force was still engaged in unskilled occupations and service activities.

Thus, 1 in every 5 Negro men was working as an unskilled laborer in April, 1940; after four years, the proportion engaged in that activity remained the same. The same situation

was found in practically every other major occupational group.

Shipyard Workers

By March, 1944, employment of nonwhite shipyard workers, predominantly Negroes, had increased more than fifteenfold since 1940, the Office of War Information reported on the basis of information furnished by the Maritime Commission, the Navy Department, the Bureau of the Census and the War Manpower Commission.

The number of nonwhite workers in 96 shipyards and naval establishments on March 1, 1944, exceeded the total peacetime employment of all workers in the industry.

The OWI report said that:

(1) Employment of nonwhite ship, boat building and repairing workers increased from 10,099 in the whole industry in 1940 to 157,874 in 96 shipyards on March 1, 1944. (Negroes constituted 96.9 percent of all nonwhite workers employed in the industry in 1940.)

(2) The 1944 employment of nonwhite workers exceeded by more than 4500 the total number of 153,364 persons listed as working in the whole shipbuilding industry by the 1940 census of the United States.

(3) While the phenomenal wartime growth of the shipbuilding industry increased total employment 888.9 percent, nonwhite employment during the same period increased 1463.2 percent, in 96 shipyards and naval establishments under contract to the Maritime Commission and the Navy Department. As a result, nonwhite shipyard workers constituted 10.9 percent of total employees in March, 1944, as compared with 6.5 percent in 1940.

A substantial numerical increase in the employment of nonwhite workers in West Coast shipyards was revealed in employer reports to the War Manpower Commission. Skilled and semiskilled shipyard employment there represents a new field for thousands of Negro workers who migrated from

the East Coast and the South. The Kaiser shipyards offered the major employment to nonwhite workers on the West Coast.

Three Kaiser yards in the Portland-Vancouver area reported 4182 nonwhite workers on March 1, 1944, and four Kaiser yards in the San Francisco area listed 7102 nonwhite employees.

At the same time, 4922 nonwhite workers were employed at the California Shipbuilding Corporation in the Los Angeles area. Other West Coast yards employing sizable numbers of nonwhite workers included the Mare Island Navy Yard, San Francisco, 3934; Marinship, San Francisco, 2700; Naval Drydock, San Francisco, 1589; Puget Sound Navy Yard, Seattle, Wash., 1435; and Bethlehem-Alameda, San Francisco, 1199.

Nonwhite workers played an important part in the West Coast shipbuilding industry. Negro shipyard workers served on labor-management production committees, and the first Negro war worker to win a War Production Board Certificate of Individual Production Merit was an employee of a West Coast shipyard.

This worker, Charles H. Fletcher, a welder in the Moore Drydock yards at Oakland, Calif., worked out a device to use in welding insulation pins to deckheads. The device, which was recommended by the Board of Individual Awards for widest possible use throughout the shipbuilding industry, speeds up tack welding, used in temporarily joining units of the superstructure, by 400 percent.

The most rapid wartime expansion of nonwhite employment in the industry occurred in the United States Navy Yards in the early days of the defense and war emergency, employment records indicate.

Postwar Outlook

The Negro gains have taken place in congested production areas where considerable readjustment of the labor force will be necessary. In general, the Negro has been able to get his war job in areas where a substantial proportion of the labor force was also engaged in war work. Information for four major congested production areas (Mobile, Charleston, Detroit and Willow Run, and Hampton Roads) shows that among the more than half a million in-migrants, about 1 in every 4 was a Negro. These cities will experience considerable labor turnover in the immediate postwar period.

In those occupations and industries in which the Negro has made his greatest employment advances, he was generally among the last to be hired. Therefore under seniority rules he is more likely to be laid off than the average worker in these occupations.

The war has given many Negroes their first opportunity to demonstrate ability to perform basic factory operations in a semiskilled and skilled capacity. The consolidation of the Negro's gains in the postwar period (and this is true, of course, for a sizable proportion of other workers as well) is dependent in large measure upon the volume of employment that then prevails.

NEGRO EMPLOYMENT IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

By John A. Davis and Cornelius L. Gollightly

(By courtesy of the authors and *Phylon*, in which the report was published in 1945)

Wide participation in federal government employment is one of the significant occupational advances that the Negro worker achieved during World

War II. The magnitude of the task of the federal government in time of war requires the employment of over three million people in civilian employment.

Every eighth American in this number was a Negro and he served at all levels of skill. There was, of course, some discrimination. However, the short labor market and the policy of the United States, reaffirmed by both the President and the Congress, that there shall be no discrimination in government employment because of race, creed, color or national origin facilitated the general utilization of the Negro worker in practically every branch of the federal service. The extent of the Negro's gain in government employment can be seen when his wartime position is evaluated in the light of his past.

From 1833 to 1912

The signing of the Civil Service Act by President Chester A. Arthur on January 16, 1883, brought to a close a half century of spoils-regime which had been instituted on a national scale by President Andrew Jackson. Negroes had shared slightly in the spoils-regime, for in 1883 at the time the Civil Service Commission was created there were approximately only 620 Negroes employed in Washington by the government.

Directly after the Civil War and for a decade or more, the Republican party managers distributed political jobs to energetic Negro politicians who would keep the new citizens in line. It was during this period that Negroes were appointed to positions such as Register of the Treasury, Assistant Postmaster General, Recorder of Deeds, and numerous positions in the consular and diplomatic services. They were also appointed by Congressmen at the rate of one in 50, to the smaller clerical jobs later placed under Civil Service regulations.

The appearance of the Civil Service Commission marked the beginning of a steady increase in Negro employment. During Democrat Grover Cleveland's first administration, 1885-1889, there was a numerical increase among Negro federal employees from 620 to 2393.

At that time Theodore Roosevelt was a Civil Service Commissioner and hundreds of Negroes were recruited into the clerical ranks of government service.

Since the first administration of Grover Cleveland, although Negroes had made marked intellectual progress there was until the 1930's little or no recruitment to the higher levels of the Civil Service. Negro employment increased, but only at the custodial level.

Through the years as the total number of government employees increased, the number of Negroes also increased but the number in responsible jobs declined. By 1912 there were over 19,000 jobs held by Negroes in the federal service. Among them there was still a considerable number of high appointments carried over from previous years. Negroes still held positions as collectors of customs, collectors of ports, paymasters, postmasters, and diplomats.

From Wilson's Administration

The administration of Woodrow Wilson, humanitarian and citizen of the world, is universally given credit for the complete rout of Negroes from responsible positions in government. By 1913 the southern Democrats were determined to bar Negroes from responsible positions and to restrict them to custodial and janitorial service. Ralph Tyler, a Negro who had been auditor of the Navy for some years, was asked to resign. The demand for other Negro resignations followed and the ousting of Negro postmasters began shortly after.

These men were not replaced by other Negroes. Segregation appeared in the Navy Department, the Treasury Department, the Post Office Department, and the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The latter resulted from the personal action of the first Mrs. Woodrow Wilson. Monroe Trotter reported that the President himself said to a delegation protesting segregation in the Post Office and the Treasury

Department that he was in favor of segregation as beneficial to both races.

The Navy Department set a precedent by placing Negroes behind screens where they could not be seen by white clerks and also ordered segregation in the use of lavatories. The Treasury followed suit in the segregation policy regarding the use of lavatories. In nearly every department and bureau of the government, the Wilson administration succeeded in establishing segregation and discrimination in employment, lavatories, and restaurants.

Federal officials in the Wilson administration and subsequent appointing officers were able to use two personnel procedures to prevent certified Negro eligibles from getting desirable Civil Service jobs. The "rule of three" which permits the appointing officer administrative discretion to select one of the three highest eligibles but not necessarily the highest on the certificate was inherited from the early days of the Civil Service.

This rule permitted the arbitrary passing over of any Negro who stood highest on a list of eligibles. In addition, the practice of requiring a photograph of applicants by the Civil Service Commission, adopted in 1914, made it easy to avoid appointing Negroes. It soon came to pass that practically no Negro had a chance for appointment to a clerical position no matter how high a grade he obtained in the Civil Service examination.

The Wilson administration set a pattern which continued to exist under the Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover administrations. It is true that the number of Negroes in government service increased but the jobs were largely as custodians. Negro prospective workers who had become more highly trained because of increased education in colleges and technical schools found it more difficult to get worthwhile Civil Service jobs than at the turn of the century.

The spending of government money during the depression presented special

problems where the relief of the Negro was concerned. President Roosevelt and a number of white men in important offices made efforts to see that Negroes received a fair share of employment. Out of this situation it came about that most of the chief federal Negro appointees under the peacetime Roosevelt administration did not hold jobs for the transaction of federal business but as advisers to deal exclusively with Negro problems.

Early Roosevelt Administration

When America entered the war there were a number of colored men and women in this group holding government jobs which paid from \$3200 to \$6500 a year. Members of the "black cabinet" held positions such as civilian aide to the Secretary of War; chief of Minorities Group Service, Bureau of Placement, War Manpower Commission; director, Division of Negro Affairs of the NYA; race relations adviser in the National Housing Agency; adviser on Negro Affairs to the Administrator of the Civilian Conservation Corps; housing consultant in the Federal Housing Administration; and racial relations officer in the Federal Works Agency.

The ability of most of the members of this group was unquestioned and some of them were qualified to hold established and important positions in the administration. However, they served instead as specialists in Negro affairs or race relations advisers. As the war progressed and Negro pressure activities increased, some of these people were able to affect the formulation of policy on racial questions and to get remedy for specific ills.

Except for the "black cabinet" the rank and file of Negro workers in the federal government remained largely in custodial classifications until the outbreak of the war.

A study made by L. J. W. Hayes in 1938 of Negro federal government workers in the District of Columbia indicates the pattern of Negro employ-

ment during the prewar Roosevelt administration. Hayes found that Negroes numbered 9717 or 8.4 percent of a total of 115,552 federal employees in Washington. In terms of the number of Negroes living in the city of Washington, this was hardly a fair share of federal employment, since the 1940 census revealed that 28.2 percent of all persons in Washington were Negroes. At the same time the total number of Negro federal workers in departmental and field service was 82,000, or 9.9 percent of the total 861,914 government employees listed in the 1938 annual report of the Civil Service Commission, representative employment as far as total numbers are concerned.

Hayes's percentage distribution of the Civil Service classification of the 9717 Negro federal workers listed in the District of Columbia on June 30, 1938, is as follows:

... 8346 or 90% were custodial; 881 or 9.5% were either clerical, administrative, fiscal or clerical-mechanical (a designation used for a number of positions in the Navy Yard, Bureau of Engraving and Government Printing Office) and 47 or .5 percent were sub-professional.

The clerical, professional, and sub-professional workers were either affiliated with the "black cabinet" or serving in Negro sections of agencies whose specific functions were to render service to the general public. The "rule of three" and requirements for race and photograph on each application made it easy to prevent appointment of Negroes to the higher and more desirable classifications.

Competitive Civil Service examinations as far as Negroes were concerned were little more than jokes. Some Negroes who were given employment in clerical classifications were cheated of permanent Civil Service status by being given temporary employment of

six months and then being reappointed every six months thereafter.

Defense Program

The tremendous increase in manpower needs which began in 1941 during the early days of the defense program was felt also in government circles. The greatest demand in classified service, of course, was for clerical workers, stenographers, and typists. These were the jobs from which Negroes traditionally had been barred. Acute shortages in the supply of such workers made it inevitable that qualified Negroes should be hired before the war's end. However, the entry of numbers of Negroes into the government service was indeed small until the intervention of President Roosevelt.

On June 25, 1941, the President issued Executive Order 8802 which specifically forbade discrimination in war industries and government training programs and government agencies by reason of race, creed, color or national origin. Shortly after the Executive Order was issued, President Roosevelt sent out an intra-government letter which ordered discriminatory practices abolished.

The newly created Committee on Fair Employment Practice sought to carry out the President's order as it applied to both government and business. Inadequately staffed, however, the committee accomplished little. The increasing number of complaints of continued discrimination in government indicated that some overall method of checking on government employment should be devised. The authority for taking such measures was contained in a letter from the President to the committee dated March 28, 1942, in which Mr. Roosevelt said:

The policy of the United States Government on the subject of racial discrimination was clearly enunciated in Executive Order 8802 and the application of that

policy in the Federal Government was made perfectly clear in my letter of September 3, 1941. I suggest, therefore, that you ascertain, by direct reports from them, the degree of progress which has been achieved by the respective departments and agencies. I am confident you will receive the full cooperation of the heads of departments and agencies in supplying the information you desire.

On the authority of this letter the Committee on Fair Employment Practice requested employment data from government agencies and departments. The agencies and departments responded by submitting periodic reports on total and Negro employment. For the first time in the history of Civil Service, comprehensive employment figures showing the grades and classifications of Negro federal government workers were made available for analysis.

Faced with the necessity of reporting to FEPC, individual government departments began to get their houses in order. But the committee did not rely merely on this procedure. Negotiations were held with the Civil Service Commission with regard to the "rule of three" and the practice of government departments requiring photographs of applicants.

The Civil Service Commission as a result of the agitation of Negro organizations and especially the National Postal Alliance abolished pictures on its applications for government employment or examination as of December 28, 1940.

The commission ruled in March, 1942, that no government agency could use an application form containing any items other than those included on the commission's standard form No. 57. The committee was not so successful with the "rule of three." The introduction of war service regulations intended to speed up recruitment gave the appointing officers a wide range of

selection from a list of persons referred by the Civil Service Commission.

FEPC Activities Since 1942

Since 1942 the committee has in effect had three agreements with the Civil Service Commission by which the commission investigated, subject to the review of the committee's staff, complaints of discrimination brought to it. Each agreement provided for a more thorough investigation of discrimination and the committee has reserved the right to go further in the case of any investigation.

The committee has also referred cases to the Civil Service Commission where time, distance, and cost would prevent it from investigating and where the commission, with its large field staff, could handle the matters involved more expeditiously.

When the committee had a small staff from June, 1941, through June, 1943, it relied heavily on the commission. After the latter date its own field offices and especially its Region IV office in Washington processed the majority of its government cases. During the period July, 1943-December, 1944, approximately one thousand cases, comprising about 25 percent of the committee's total case load were handled against government agencies.

While this would appear high it should be remembered that the figure includes government industrial establishments on the continent and that total government employment includes almost three million people. It is clear, too, that more people in government service now complained because they felt more secure against retaliation.

This latter factor explains why although government cases were 25 percent of the total case load they were only 17.5 percent of satisfactory adjustments, while business against which 69.4 percent of the cases were docketed provided 81 percent of the satisfactory adjustments. It is also true that government procedures nec-

essary to maintain the merit system make it more difficult to prove discrimination.

As a result of all these activities, agency reports to FEPC, direct investigation of complaints of discrimination by FEPC and the Civil Service Commission, and considerable elimination of the tools by which discrimination could be practiced, Negro employment in government improved quantitatively and qualitatively.

Employment Gains, Statistics

The most complete survey of federal employment made by the committee occurred in March of 1944, but two surveys from which fairly reliable estimates could be made had been concluded earlier. A study released in March of 1943 indicated Negro federal workers in the District of Columbia had risen from 8.4 percent of all employees in 1938 to 17 percent as of November, 1942. This was rapid improvement after the President's dramatic action.

A second report of the committee released in December, 1943, indicated that as of July 31, 1943, Negroes were roughly 12 percent of all persons in federal employment as compared with 9.8 percent in 1938 and that they were 18 percent of all persons in departmental service. The study also indicated that Negroes were gaining significant employment for the first time in CAF (Clerical-Administrative-Fiscal) categories.

In the survey of employment in 57 government agencies and departments covering 2,295,614 or 85.0 percent of the total 2,699,946 full-time continental government workers on March 31, 1944, it was found that Negroes numbered 273,971 or 11.9 percent.

In departmental service, the headquarters offices chiefly located in Washington, D.C., Negroes were 41,556 or 19.2 percent of a total of 216,208 employees, and in field service 232,415 or 11.2 percent of a total of 2,079,406 employees. The survey covered 95.7

percent of the total 225,954 departmental employees and 84.1 percent of the total of 2,473,992 field workers.

The survey also indicated a remarkable improvement in Negro employment qualitatively as well as quantitatively. In departmental service, chiefly in the District of Columbia, 49 percent of all Negro employees were classified as clerical-administrative and fiscal, 9.9 percent as clerical-mechanical, and 1.1 percent as professional and subprofessional, while 39.6 percent were crafts-protective and custodial. It will be remembered that in 1938 Hayes reported that 90 percent of all Negro federal workers in the District of Columbia were custodial, 9.5 percent CAF or CM, and .5 percent SP or P.

Among the classes of federal agencies the war agencies employed the largest number of Negroes. Of the 1,928,216 employees in the war agencies, 231,458 or 12 percent were colored. The Army and the Navy hired the highest numbers of colored workers with 11.8 percent of the former agency's personnel and 14.6 percent of the latter's composed of colored persons. Though lagging behind both absolutely and proportionately, the OPA, the WPB, and the WMC each employed more than one thousand Negroes.

The war agencies also showed up well in the classification distribution of colored workers. In the war agencies group as a whole, comparative distributions of personnel, all employees and Negro respectively, were as follows: professional 4.4 and .6 percent; subprofessional, 4.7 and 2.0 percent; CAF 73.4 and 54.8 percent; CPC, 13.4 and 41.7 percent; and EO [created by executive order], 4.0 and 0.9 percent.

The War and Navy Departments employed the largest number of colored employees and were also above the average in the classification distribution of their Negro personnel. However, several of the remaining agencies which had fewer Negro workers in their employ gave their col-

ored employees better jobs as a whole.

The National War Labor Board can be taken as an example. In this agency 17.4 percent of all Negro workers were professional and 75.2 percent were clerical employees. The remaining 7.5 percent were custodial workers. However, the National War Labor Board employed only 133 colored workers, 5.5 percent of its total of 2432 workers.

Contrary to the general tendency, the War Labor Board made a better distribution showing in field than in departmental personnel. In departmental personnel Negro professionals were 8.6 percent compared with 26.8 percent for the total; but in the field where there were only 63 Negroes in a total of 1913, Negro professionals were 27.0 percent of all Negro workers compared with 28.6 percent professionals for all workers. This pattern of a small but well distributed number of colored workers seems to indicate that the agency practices a policy of high selectivity in the hiring of Negro personnel.

Other agencies in this group which followed a pattern similar to the National War Labor Board were the Office of Price Administration, the War Manpower Commission, and the War Production Board. In these agencies and in the War and Navy Departments the bulk of Negro professional workers was concentrated.

In the first study made by the committee covering employment as of November, 1942, the Department of Agriculture was reported as employing 500 Negroes in departmental service or 4.7 percent of its total departmental personnel. In the second study of the committee covering employment as of July 31, 1943, the Department of Justice was represented with 165 colored workers in departmental service, or 1.8 percent of the total 9120. In field service 444 Negroes formed 1.8 percent of the total 24,114. The Labor Department has never sent any employment data to the committee.

The Post Office Department has never submitted data on field employ-

ment. However, John F. Gartland, chairman of the operations board of the Post Office Department, stated in a conference with FEPC representatives on November 25, 1944, that total Post Office employment was approximately 370,000 and that Negro employees numbered 10,000 or 2.7 percent.

If these estimates are included in our totals the proportion of Negroes in the federal executive departments drops from 9.2 percent to 4.5 percent, and in total federal service from 11.9 percent to 10.6 percent.

Employment in the executive departments of the federal government is the most permanent and stable. Here the material for this study was least complete for the Departments of Agriculture, Labor, Justice, and the Post Office Department did not submit reports. State, Treasury, Interior, Commerce, the Post Office [*sic*] Departments reported 168,361 workers with 15,593, or 9.2 percent colored. In departmental service 12,641 colored workers formed 22.8 percent of the total 55,493 but in field establishments they numbered only 2952 or 2.6 percent of the total 113,138 employees.

In the executive departments group the Treasury reported the largest number of colored employees, 10,457 or 11.5 percent of the total 90,759. However, most of these employees were concentrated in the departmental service where they numbered 8543 or 27.0 percent of a total 31,644. In field service 1914 colored employees formed only 3.2 percent of the 59,115 field employees. As has been indicated, field employment of Negroes in the executive departments group is very poor.

The highest proportionate employment of Negroes occurred in the thirty independent agencies which reported 26,896 colored employees or 13.6 percent of this group's 198,219 workers. In departmental service Negroes were 20.2 percent or 74,102 workers; they were 9.6 percent of the 124,117 employees in the field.

In the independent agencies group

the chief employers of Negroes were the Federal Works Agency with 8682 colored workers, 42.1 percent of its total 20,627 employees; the Federal Security Agency with 4447 or 15.7 percent of its total 28,477; the Veterans Administration with 4527 or 9.7 percent of its total 46,842; the Government Printing Office with 2295 or 30.6 percent of its total 7489, and the Tennessee Valley Authority with 2426 or 10.9 percent of its total 22,261 workers.

Negro employment in this group, while quantitatively good, was not consistent in quality. The majority of the colored employees in the Federal Works Agency, for example, were in CPC jobs in the Public Roads Administration and the Public Buildings Administration.

The analysis of grade distribution within classifications showed a heavier concentration of Negro workers in the lower grades than total workers, but the number of Negroes in grades 4 and over in each classification was encouraging.

Here again the war agencies were in the lead. In the CAF classification 12.0 percent of all Negro personnel were in grades 4 or above, while 37.4 percent of total personnel fell in the same bracket. In the independent agencies 6.0 percent of Negro CAF workers in grades 4 or above, while 43.2 percent of total personnel were in the same grade range. However, the independent agencies' subprofessionals were respectively 10.2 percent and 38.0 percent for Negro and total personnel in these grades. The executive departments ran a poor third with only 4.9 percent of its Negro CAF workers in grades above 3 as compared with 52.3 percent for total personnel.

Unclassified Workers

About one half of all federal employees are not classified workers under the Classification Act of 1923, but are production workers. Unfortunately, Negro federal employees are overwhelmingly in this category which

will experience the deepest cutbacks. Negro workers are concentrated heavily in the operations of the Army service forces and the work of Navy shore establishments.

The committee's study revealed that 1,178,413 or 51.3 percent of the total 2,295,614 federal employees were classified, and 1,117,201 or 49.7 percent were unclassified. Of the total 273,971 Negro workers only 82,183 or 30 percent were classified, and 191,788 or 70.0 percent were unclassified. Thus, in the slightly larger half of classified federal employment Negroes were only 7.0 percent, but in the remaining half of unclassified service they were 17.2 percent.

Conclusions

The Civil Service Commission's retention preference regulations for reduction in force make it clear that the Negro will face a hard time in holding on to present job gains. Permanent Civil Service status, veterans' preference and a high efficiency rating are key factors resulting in retention. Seniority is a less important factor, but while this would ordinarily be favorable to the Negro because of his recent arrival in federal employment, it is of little significance because most of his arrival occurred after March 16, 1942 [*sic*].

After that date all appointments were for the duration of the war and six months thereafter at the most. Termination may occur at any time before this in the discretion of the commission. Some federal Negro employment occurred from the summer of 1941 to March of 1942, but all indications are to the effect that there were seldom permanent appointments in the better jobs.

There are also indications that white supervisors have not been fair with efficiency ratings. But there is no quantitative data to prove either of these possible conditions.

The postwar prospects of colored government workers will be affected by

the elimination of most of unclassified production, construction and service jobs incident to the war effort; the elimination of war agencies in which Negroes have made important occupational gains such as OPA, WMC, WPB, WLB, etc., and the reduction of the Army and the Navy, which have given the Negro most of his employment; the curtailment of employment in many executive departments and independent agencies; the increased desirability of government jobs for white workers as wages and opportunities decrease in industry; the relative lack of permanent Civil Service status on the part of the Negro; and the still comparatively low educational and professional qualifications of the Negro worker.

PLACEMENT BY THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE: 1944

Source: United States Employment Service

Local offices of the United States Employment Service of the War Manpower Commission made more

than 2,000,000 placements of nonwhite workers in 1944. This was reported a record-breaking total.

The new high in nonwhite placements, constituting 18 percent of total nonagricultural placements made by the United States Employment Service in 1944, was an increase of 32.2 percent over nonwhite placements in 1943.

Sharply expanding war production schedules during this year created an urgent and immediate need for all kinds of workers, skilled and unskilled, in the nation's critical war plants.

Placements of nonwhite workers by the United States Employment Service in 1944 totaled 2,055,205 and were distributed by occupational groups as follows:

	Number	Percentage Distribution
Professional and managerial	1,451	.1
Clerical and sales....	21,170	1.0
Service	600,155	29.2
Skilled	51,450	2.5
Semiskilled	150,226	7.3
Unskilled and other..	1,230,753	59.9

THE LABOR MOVEMENT 1944-1945

By George F. McCray

EMPLOYMENT GAINS

The participation of Negro workers in the American labor movement was intensified during the years 1944 and 1945. The number of gainfully employed Negroes rose to 5,500,000 by the end of 1944 and the number of Negroes who became union members probably exceeded 750,000. This unprecedented participation of Negroes in unions reflected the high level of Negro employment in industries essential to the war effort.

Between April, 1940, and April, 1944, there was a marked movement of Negroes from farms to industrial areas. This trend was probably continued into the fall of 1945.

The Telephone Industry

During 1944 and 1945 a substantial

number of telephone companies decided to use Negro labor in skilled and semiskilled employment: clerks and operators. The firms are listed below with the dates they began to hire Negroes.

City	Date
St. Louis, Mo. Southwestern Bell Telephone Company	July '44
Newark, N.J. New Jersey Bell Telephone Company	Dec. '44
New York, N.Y. New York Telephone Company	Dec. '44
Boston, Mass. New England Telephone Company	Sept. '45
Morristown, N.J. Morristown, N.J., Telephone Company	Aug. '45
Buffalo, N.Y. New York Bell Telephone Company	Mar. '45

Railroad Stewards

Early in 1945 officials of the Pennsylvania and the Milwaukee Railroads announced their respective roads would employ Negro dining car stewards. Use of Negro stewards was urged on the two carriers at different times by the Joint Council of Dining Car Employees, A. F. of L., and the United Transport Service Employees of America.

Department Store Clerks

The prolonged shortage of white female clerks which began in 1942 led a number of retail stores in metropolitan areas to employ Negro clerks, particularly in New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. A survey made by the National Urban League in July, 1946 gave approximately fifty Negro sales clerks in New York City, Boston, and in a few New Jersey cities, and about as many in other clerical positions.

Negroes in Organizable Industries

By the spring of 1944 there were over 1,655,000 Negro workers employed in industries in which union recognition and collective bargaining are general practices. These Negro male and female workers, employed in so-called "organizable" industries, represented nearly 31 percent of all gainfully employed Negroes and were located primarily in the following industries: mining, construction, manufacturing, transportation, communication, and public utilities.

The extent of the collective bargaining environment of those Negro workers engaged in manufacturing and mining is indicated by the following data based on a report on the extent of collective bargaining by the Bureau of Labor Statistics ⁶ and the employment

of nonwhites in war industries by the War Manpower Commission.⁷

Industry	Non-whites Employed	Percent Organized ⁶
Ordnance and accessories	104,449	80-100
Chemicals and allied products	23,072	20- 40
Rubber products	15,090	80-100
Iron and steel and their products	135,851	80-100
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)...	253,790	80-100
Nonferrous metals and products	31,488	80-100
Electrical machinery and appliances	30,036	60- 80
Machinery and machine tools	35,819	60- 80
Automobile and automobile equipment	18,481	80-100
Food and kindred products	57,896	60- 80
Women's clothing	..	80-100
Longshoremen and stevedores	20,279	80-100
Mining	223,003	80-100
Construction	197,000	80-100
Tobacco products	21,403	60- 80

The movement of Negro workers in United States industry had both a horizontal and a vertical direction. Generally, as migrant Negroes moved into urban centers, principally in the North, and into shipbuilding and repair centers along the Atlantic, Gulf and Pacific coasts, urbanized Negro workers moved up to skilled and semi-skilled work. Frequently both the migrant and the urbanized Negro worker were attracted to new or expanding war industries such as aircraft, shipbuilding, and ordnance.

These relatively sudden changes in the economic status of Negroes were opposed in numerous instances by employers and white workers. The War Manpower Commission and the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practices were the main government agencies which attempted to overcome employer opposition to the full utilization of Negroes and other workers who were members of minority groups in the United States population.

⁶ *Monthly Labor Review*, April, 1945.

⁷ Summary of ES. 270 Reports, March, 1945, War Manpower Commission.

ESTIMATED NEGRO UNION MEMBERSHIP

During 1944 and 1945 Negro union membership soared to unprecedented heights. This membership naturally is to be found in those unions having jurisdiction or bargaining rights in those employments and industries where large numbers of Negroes are

employed. The following estimates of Negro union membership in the larger unions are based on the claims of the unions themselves; and the extent of organization in a given industry related to the numbers of Negroes employed in the industry.

American Federation of Labor

Name of Union	Estimated Number of Negro Members, Dec., 1945
Automobile Workers of America, United.....	5,000
Boilermakers, Iron Shipbuilders, Welders and Helpers, International Brotherhood of	18,000
Bricklayers, Masons, and Plasterers' International Union.....	3,000
Building Service Employees	10,000
Carpenters and Joiners, United Brotherhood of	3,000
Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees, Brotherhood of—Ry. and S.S.	12,000
Garment Workers, International Ladies'	14,000
Hod Carriers, Building and Common Laborers	55,000
Hotel and Restaurant Employees, International Alliance, and Bartenders League of America	9,000
Laundry Workers, International Union of	12,000
Longshoremen, International Association of	16,000
Maintenance of Way Employees, Brotherhood of.....	5,000
Musicians, American Federation of	10,000
Porters, Brotherhood of Sleeping Car	12,000
Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Stablemen and Helpers.....	15,000
United Mine Workers of America	65,000

Congress of Industrial Organizations

Automobile, Aircraft, and Agricultural Implement Workers, United	100,000
Clothing Workers of America, Amalgamated	15,000
Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers of America	10,000
Food, Tobacco, Agricultural, Packing, and Allied Workers of America	10,500
Farm Equipment Workers of America	6,000
Furniture Workers of America, United	6,000
Longshoremen and Warehousemen's Union	3,000
Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America.....	16,000
Maritime Union of America, National	2,000
Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers, International Union of.....	6,000
United Packinghouse Workers of America.....	25,000
Steel Workers of America, United	85,000
Transport Service Employees of America, United.....	12,000

Estimated total 560,500

NOTE: With the addition of several independent Negro unions and Negro membership in a few unions not mentioned above, among which are the United Federal Workers of America, the Office and Professional Workers, and the American Newspaper Guild, the estimated Negro union membership total runs close to 750,000.

As a result of the intercession of the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice and various civic and governmental agencies, many unions granted Negroes "permits" to work, but continued to deny them full membership. In several instances local unions of A. F. of L. boilermakers, electrical workers, railway clerks, plumbers and steamfitters, and machinists, in spite of the official opposition of their internationals, accepted Negroes on a full membership basis.

On the whole, however, the war brought about no substantial changes in the relations of Negro workers to the following unions which discriminate against them in some manner, according to the report of A. Philip Randolph, President of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, to the 1943 A. F. of L. convention:

Unions which exclude Negroes by provision in their constitutions:

A. F. of L. Affiliates:

Machinists, International Association of (excludes Negroes by ritual)

Airline Pilots' Association⁸

Commercial Telegraphers' Union
Masters, Mates and Pilots, National Organization of

Railroad Telegraphers, Order of
Railway Mail Association

Switchmen's Union of North America

Wire Weavers' Protective Association, American

Unaffiliated Organizations

Locomotive Engineers, Brotherhood of

Locomotive Firemen and Engine-men, Brotherhood of

Railroad Trainmen, Brotherhood of⁹

Railroad Yardmasters of America

Railroad Yardmasters of North America

Railway Conductors, Order of
Train Dispatchers' Association, American

Unions which habitually exclude Negroes by tacit consent:

A. F. of L. Affiliates

Asbestos Workers, Heat and Frost Insulators

Electrical Workers, International Brotherhood of

Flint Glass Workers' Union, American

Granite Cutters, International Association of

Plumbers and Steamfitters, United Association of Journeymen

Unions which afford Negroes only segregated auxiliary status:

A. F. of L. Affiliates

Blacksmiths, Drop Forgers and Helpers, Brotherhood of

Boilermakers, Iron Shipbuilders, Welders and Helpers, Brotherhood of

Maintenance of Way Employees, Brotherhood of

Railway Carmen of America, Brotherhood of

Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees, Brotherhood of

Rural Letter Carriers, Federation of

Sheet Metal Workers' International Association

Unaffiliated Organizations

Rural Letter Carriers' Association

Railroad Workers, American Federation of

None of the organizations restricting Negro membership was affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO).

⁸ This union reported to the New York State Commission against Discrimination in 1945 that it had no clause in its constitution compelling discrimination against Negroes.

⁹ This union reported to the New York State Commission against Discrimination that its discriminatory clause in its constitution provided that it should not be operative when in conflict with state or city laws, and that this provision has not been in force in New York State since July 1, 1945.

A provision in the constitution of the CIO specifically forbids discrimination against a worker because of race, creed, color or nationality. The A. F. of L. has no such clause in its constitution. It has adopted resolutions from time to time at its annual conventions condemning racial discrimination and declaring that its policy is not to discriminate. However, repeated attempts by A. Philip Randolph, President of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, have failed to have a non-discrimination provision inserted in the constitution. Its affiliated unions, therefore, are at liberty to adopt whatever provisions or policy they wish in the matter of Negro membership.

NEGRO UNIONS

In various sections of the country groups of Negro workers who were barred from the "white" international and national unions have developed all-Negro unions in an effort to protect their interests in a given occupation. In 1945 the following groups were known to exist:

The National Alliance of Postal Employees; president, Ashby B. Barter, 5633 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Consolidated Trades Council (Construction Trades), Chicago, Ill.

Pullman Porters Union of America; C. E. Kendricks, president, New York, N.Y.

Association of Colored Railway Trainmen and Locomotive Firemen; president, S. H. Clarke, Roanoke, Va.

International Association of Railway Employees, Houston, Tex.

Florida East Coast Association of Colored Locomotive Firemen.

The Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, founded in 1925, and the United Transport Service Employees of America, founded in 1938, were not affiliated with either of the two labor federations for several years after their founding. The Sleeping Car Porters union is all Negro, while the UTSEA has a few white and Japanese-

American members. The former entered the A. F. of L. in 1928 and the latter was admitted to the CIO in 1942.

SOME IMPORTANT POSITIONS HELD BY NEGROES IN THE LABOR MOVEMENT

Despite the fact there were several important changes among the group of Negro union leaders, an increase in the number of Negro union leaders in both A. F. of L. and CIO unions was noted on national, state, county, and city levels. Notable among the losses were:

Walter Hardin, veteran leader in the CIO United Automobile Workers Union, was retired as an employee of the union.

Shelton Toppes was defeated for re-election as recording secretary of the largest local union in the world—UAW CIO Local 600, with over 80,000 members, at the Ford River Rouge plant in Detroit.

Henry Johnson, former assistant national director, midwest region of District 50, United Mine Workers of America, was assassinated by Art Shelton in a union dispute in Chicago.

William Beckham, chairman of the bargaining committee of the local United Automobile Workers-CIO, at the Reading, O., plant of the Curtiss-Wright Company where 25,000 workers were employed, was defeated for re-election in 1945.

Officers and Positions, 1944-1945

Natalie F. Ausley, vice president, American Federation of Teachers, A. F. of L.

Solon C. Bell, president, Joint Council of Dining Car Employees, A. F. of L.

George Benjamin, vice president, Tobacco Workers' International Union, A. F. of L.

George E. Brown, vice president, International Union of Hotel and Restaurant Employees, A. F. of L.

Richard Carter, executive board member and organizer, Industrial

Union of Marine and Shipbuilding Workers of America.

George W. Crockett, Jr., executive director, Fair Practices Committee of the CIO United Automobile Workers Union.

Frank R. Crosswaith, national organizer, International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, A. F. of L.

Delores Darnell, member of the executive board, International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union.

John Mack Dyson, vice president, Food, Tobacco, Agricultural and Allied Workers, CIO.

Frank Evans, general executive board member and international representative, United Automobile Workers Union, A. F. of L.

R. L. Goodwin, traveling representative, American Federation of Musicians.

Ewart Guinier, national executive board member, State, County and Municipal Workers of America.

James Hampton, vice president, Alabama State Federation of Labor, A. F. of L.

James E. Harris, general vice president, United Federal Workers of America.

C. F. Kendricks, executive board, Consolidated Unions of America.

G. W. Millner, vice president, International Longshoremen's Association, A. F. of L.; Laundry Workers Joint Board, New York.

Melbourne Mitchell, executive board member, United Federal Workers of America.

Oliver Palmer, executive board member, United Federal Workers of America.

A. Philip Randolph, president, Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, A. F. of L.

Thomas Richardson, executive vice president, United Federal Workers of America.

Robbie Mae Riddick, vice president, Food, Tobacco, Agricultural, and Allied Workers, CIO.

Theodore Robinson, executive board, State, County and Municipal Workers of America, CIO.

Ferdinand Smith, secretary, National Maritime Union.

Richard W. Smith, secretary-treasurer, Joint Council of Dining Car Employees, A. F. of L.

William Spooner, member of the executive board, International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union.

Willard S. Townsend, president, United Transport Service Employees of America, CIO, and member CIO Executive Board.

Clifford Wallace, third vice president of the Kansas State Federation of Labor.

George L. P. Weaver, executive director, CIO Committee to Abolish Racial Discrimination.

Milton P. Webster, vice president, Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters.

Philip Weightman, vice president, United Packinghouse Workers of America, CIO.

Haywood William, vice president, North Carolina State Federation of Labor, A. F. of L.

Owen H. Whitfield, vice president, United Cannery, Agricultural Packing and Allied Workers of America, CIO.

Boyd Wilson, international representative, United Steelworkers of America, CIO.

Oscar Wilson, international representative, United Packinghouse Workers of America, CIO.

John Yancey, secretary-treasurer, United Transport Service Employees of America, and member of Utility Workers' Organizing Committee.

BASES FOR OPPOSING DISCRIMINATION IN UNIONS

The years 1944 and 1945 saw a clarification of the bases for combating the discriminatory practices of trade unions. Various courts, quasi-judicial bodies, labor federations, individual unions, and civic organizations succeeded to a substantial degree in ob-

taining recognition and acceptance of one or more of the following ideas:

1. Bargaining agent must accept responsibility

That inherent in the acceptance of exclusive bargaining rights by a trade union is the obligation upon the union, the bargaining agent, to accord equal protection and treatment to all employees in the jurisdiction covered by the bargaining right. (See section on locomotive firemen, the boiler-makers, and the National Labor Relations Board.)

2. Super-seniority for victims of prejudice

That as a means of compensating or offsetting the unfavorable treatment of Negroes and women with respect to hiring and upgrading in certain industries, special measures should be adopted to enable them to retain more of their wartime employment gains. (See section on seniority.)

3. Denial of bargaining rights

That unions practicing racial discrimination in the sense of denying workers equal rights and privileges on the bases of nationality, race, or religion, should not be certified as exclusive bargaining agents, nor be recognized as unions. (See section on Railway Mail Association, National Labor Relations Board, and A. F. of L. Convention.)

4. Limiting employer hiring authority

That discrimination against Negroes in the hiring process, whether or not the victims of such segregation are members of the union, is a proper subject for collective bargaining. (See section on CIO Convention.)

5. Abolition of discrimination in the structure of the labor movement

That separate auxiliaries for Ne-

groes are discriminatory, and contrary to sound principles of industrial democracy. (See A. F. of L. Convention.)

THE CIO CONVENTION

The seventh constitutional convention of the Congress of Industrial Organizations met at Chicago, Ill., November 20-24, 1944. There was no convention in 1945 due to wartime travel restrictions. Attending the 1944 convention were 567 official delegates, among whom were 8 Negroes as official delegates. They were Boyd Wilson, United Steelworkers of America; Pope Huff, United Farm Equipment Workers; Thomas Richardson, United Federal Workers; William Carter, Marine and Shipbuilding Workers; Philip Weightman, United Packinghouse Workers; John Yancey, George L. P. Weaver, and Willard S. Townsend, United Transport Service Employees. Attending as visitors and observers were 20 Negro labor leaders from various unions around the country.

In the field of interracial labor relations the convention reaffirmed its "firm and unwavering" policy against discrimination toward Negro and other minorities. To protect the wartime employment gains of Negroes and other minorities the convention unanimously urged its affiliated unions to "seek the incorporation into collective bargaining agreements of a provision that no one seeking employment shall be discriminated against because of race, creed, color, or place of origin." It also called on Congress to enact "legislation that will make the Fair Employment Practice Committee a permanent institution and confer upon the agency authority to enforce decision."

Willard S. Townsend, President of the United Transport Service Employees of America, was re-elected to the CIO executive board. Ferdinand Smith, Secretary of the National Maritime Union, was not a candidate to succeed himself, having previously resigned his position on the executive

board and in the Maritime Union to comply with a union regulation making it illegal for aliens to serve as officials of the union.¹⁰ Townsend, the only Negro member of the executive board, was chosen by the convention to represent the CIO as a fraternal delegate to the convention of the Cuban Federation of Labor.

CIO COMMITTEE TO ABOLISH RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

In September, 1945, the National CIO Committee to Abolish Discrimination reported substantial progress in its efforts to establish machinery to carry on an educational program to build a labor movement "based on human freedom and dignity, regardless of race, color, creed, or sex."

The committee reported a total of "one hundred smaller co-operating committees operating in international unions and in state, county, and city industrial union councils."

International unions with committees functioning on a national basis were: United Automobile, Aircraft & Agricultural Implement Workers of America; American Newspaper Guild; National Maritime Union of America; United Gas, Coke & Chemical Workers of America; International Union of Mine, Mill & Smelter Workers; United Packinghouse Workers of America; United Farm Equipment & Metal Workers of America; United Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Employees of America.

Local industrial union councils with antidiscrimination committees were: San Francisco, Calif.; Bridgeport, Conn.; St. Joseph Council, South Bend, Ind.; Boyd and Greenup Counties, Ky.; Cleveland, O.; Jefferson and Harrison Counties, Steubenville, O.; Berks County, Reading, Pa.; Wheeling Region, Wheeling, W. Va.; Wisconsin State Council, Milwaukee, Wis.

The National Committee also carried on a publicity and poster campaign within the CIO. Over 15,000 posters

were distributed, and also 205,000 simple, profusely illustrated copies of the booklet "I Know My Neighbors, Do You?" One million copies of "There Are No-Master Races" were also distributed.

In 1945 the National CIO Committee to Abolish Discrimination comprised the following persons: chairman, James B. Carey, secretary of CIO; secretary, Willard S. Townsend, president, United Transport Service Employees; members included James J. Leary, secretary-treasurer, Mine Mill & Smelter Workers; Boyd L. Wilson, international representative, United Steelworkers of America; Morris Muster, president, United Furniture Workers of America; Harry Read, Newspaper Guild; M. Hedley Stone, secretary, National Maritime Union; George W. Crockett, Jr., United Automobile Workers. The director was George L. P. Weaver, a Negro, United Transport Service Employees of America.

CIO AUTO WORKERS FAIR PRACTICES COMMITTEE

The international executive board of the CIO United Automobile Workers Union met in Atlantic City, N.J. October 5, 1944. By unanimous vote the board created a UAW-CIO Fair Practices Committee and charged it with the responsibility of investigating and making recommendations to prevent or correct those injuries and injustices to union members which are due to racial, religious, creed, and color prejudices. The committee was also ordered to assist in the effort to enlighten the union's membership "concerning the policy of the international union respecting discrimination."

The members of the committee were: chairman, George F. Addes, secretary-treasurer of the UAW-CIO; R. J. Thomas, president, UAW-CIO; Arnold Atwood, executive board member, UAW-CIO; Richard T. Leonard, executive board member, UAW-CIO; Joseph Mattson, executive board mem-

¹⁰ Later naturalized and re-elected.

ber, UAW-CIO; Carl Swanson, executive board member, UAW-CIO.

The only Negro associated with the committee was its executive director, Attorney George W. Crockett, Jr., who had been an examiner for the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practices. In view of the ease with which displeased union members may register their opinions at elections of international executive board members, and in view of the bitter disputes which had been provoked to prevent Negro employment and promotion, the report of Chairman George F. Addes in 1945 was particularly significant.

In the January-February issue (1946) of *Congress-View Magazine* Addes reported:

When the UAW was first organized we provided in our constitution that one of our objects should be, "to unite in one organization, regardless of religion, race, creed, color, political affiliation or nationality, all employees under the jurisdiction of the International Union." That objective has been our guiding policy ever since and we have sought in every possible way to mold our members' acting to conform with that policy.

We do not claim a perfect record; but we do claim for ourselves the best record in this field of human relations of any comparable organization in American life—including the churches. Today, for example, not one of our 1000 local unions would think of denying union membership to a Negro worker in one of our plants because of his color.

To hold a UAW convention in a community where Negroes and whites could not share the same facilities is unheard of. We have declined the invitation of many cities where discrimination practices prevail.

Expending union funds in support of programs which do not

make provisions for Negro participation is contrary to UAW policy and we have not hesitated to "call the hand" of any of our locals which attempted this.

A special agency, equipped now with a year's experience, has the responsibility of carrying out this portion of our work. It is our international union's Fair Practices Committee. We also have established a National UAW Advisory Conference on Discrimination composed of Fair Practices representatives from each of our sixteen regional offices. Every reported case of discrimination in a UAW local or a UAW plant which is not satisfactorily settled on the local union level is referred to our Fair Practices Committee.

The committee, operating as an agency of our international executive board and responsible only to the board itself, is authorized to conduct hearings and to summon before it any official or member of our organization. Its findings and recommendations are referred to the full board for approval and enforcement. To date every recommendation made by the committee has been approved.

Listed among the many cases which have been satisfactorily handled by our union's Fair Practices Committee the following stand out in bold relief:

1. A local union which a year ago sought to violate UAW policy by refusing to admit Negroes to membership has been compelled, under threat of revocation of its charter, to accept these workers into full union membership.
2. A local union which endeavored to exclude Negroes from the local's club rooms has been compelled, upon order from the board, to open its club rooms to all UAW mem-

bers regardless of their race or color.

3. A local union which sought to process the grievance of a white member who had been discharged for leading a "hate" strike against the employment of a Negro worker has been told that the international union will not countenance the reinstatement of such members. That former UAW member is still discharged.
4. Local unions that contracted for boat-rides and dances with the knowledge that Negroes would be excluded have been compelled to cancel such arrangements even at considerable financial loss to the local.
5. A local union which upheld its plant committee's refusal to enforce the seniority rights of a Jewish member has been required to pay to that member approximately \$1700. This sum represented the difference between what this member actually earned and what he would have earned had his seniority not been violated, plus his legitimate expenses incurred in bringing his case to the attention of the international union.

These are but a few of the instances in which the international union, at the request of our Fair Practices Committee, has felt compelled to "crack down."

This does not mean that we have forsaken the educational approach to this problem of intolerance. Rather, it means that we have placed that approach in its proper perspective. Education to us is a means of eradicating prejudices. Elimination of discriminatory practices, however, need not wait upon the result of education;

it requires only forceful and timely action.

THE A. F. OF L. CONVENTION

The sixty-fourth convention of the American Federation of Labor met at New Orleans, La., November 20 to 30 inclusive in 1944. Of the 606 accredited delegates, 3 were Negroes; Frank Evans of the United Automobile Workers, and A. Philip Randolph and Milton Webster of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters. Approximately 24 Negro union leaders were present as observers and alternates.

Six resolutions dealing with various aspects of interracial labor relations were considered by the convention. The resolutions proposed that the A. F. of L. investigate charges of discrimination against Negroes in the armed forces, that auxiliary, segregative local unions be condemned; that the Justice Department be urged to enforce United States Supreme Court decisions outlawing white primaries; that Congress be urged to enact an anti-lynch law; that the convention endorse the FEPC and legislation to give the committee a permanent status; and that it generally condemn theories of the master race and racial superiority.

During the 1944 convention of the A. F. of L., A. Philip Randolph, President of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, told the delegates that unions which segregate Negro workers into separate auxiliaries such as the "boilermakers and electrical workers should be made to toe the line or be put out of the American Federation of Labor." Interpreting the meaning of auxiliary unions for the delegates Randolph charged:

Here you are witnessing a form of trade union imperialism, whereby workers, because of race and color, sustain the status of subjects and they are oppressed and exploited because of that fact. Now the members of an auxiliary

union do not have the right to vote in the national conventions. They do not have the right to express an opinion with respect to the leaders who make contracts concerning rate of pay and rules governing working conditions that affect their very lives.

They have nothing to say about the government of the organization to which they pay dues. In other words, the members of an auxiliary union have only the right to pay dues to the national organization. That obtains with respect to the boilermakers and the other national and international organizations that maintain auxiliary unions.

The delegates of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters contend that this is a form of dual membership in the American Federation of Labor. You have first-class trade union membership in the American Federation of Labor which applies to white workers in the national and international unions and you have a second-class trade union membership. The second-class trade union members have absolutely no voice whatsoever in the affairs of the organization.

The convention, on recommendation of the resolutions committee, reaffirmed the declaration of the convention in 1943 on the status of the Negro worker in the labor movement. It thus unanimously refused to take positive action against auxiliary unions. The 1943 convention of the A. F. of L. declared unanimously:

National origin, race or color must in no manner or form restrict any American from a free opportunity to prepare himself to become a skilled mechanic, a craftsman, and take his place as such in any employment requiring the skill which he has acquired. The doors of our trade union move-

ment must be open. This country must not maintain an industrial standard which discriminates against a wage earner because of his color.

Substantial progress has been made in eliminating prejudices, but there still remains an obligation upon the American Federation of Labor to carry on and expand the good work it has already done, so that the principle of industrial equality to all men will be established beyond question in every section of our country.

The 1943 convention recommended that the declaration on policy concerning discrimination be given the widest possible publicity and that "all the educational facilities of our union movement be used" in furthering the policy.

This convention reaffirmed its position "previously taken by the convention of the American Federation of Labor to prevent lynching." It supported the effort to outlaw "white primaries," condemned the "master race doctrine," ordered an investigation of discrimination against Negroes in the armed services.

The convention also gave unanimous approval to a resolution sponsored by Edward J. Voly, Matthew Woll, and Henry F. Schmal, of the International Photo-Engravers Union of North America warning the "American people against the danger of allowing the wave of racialism to spread in this country, and against the evil of discriminating against minorities. . . ." The resolution demanded "the immediate abolition of the poll tax and the establishment, by act of Congress, of a permanent Fair Employment Practice Commission, authorized to eliminate discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin, in private work as well as in government."

Finally, the unions affiliated with the A. F. of L. were "urged to wage an

unrelenting struggle against the groups responsible for the spreading of the poison of anti-Catholicism, anti-Protestantism, anti-Semitism, anti-Negroism, and other forms of racial prejudice, and that the executive council give all possible support to the international and local unions in the undertaking and carrying out of an educational program calculated to promote tolerance, understanding, and amity among the various groups comprising the family of American organized labor."

STATE A. F. OF L. FEDERATIONS

New York:

The New York State Federation of Labor meeting in convention at Syracuse, on August 24, 1944, elected a Negro, Thomas G. Young, to an important post in the state federation. Young, who is recording secretary of Local 32-B of the Building Service Employees' International Union, was elected to the organization's legislative committee.

Kansas:

In May of 1944 Clifford Wallace, organizer for the American Federation of Labor, was elected third vice president of the Kansas State Federation of Labor.

Springer to England:

On the suggestion of David Dubinsky, president of the A. F. of L. International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, in January, 1945, appointed Mrs. Maida Stewart Springer to represent the A. F. of L. on a goodwill mission to England. Mrs. Springer was the only Negro woman of a delegation of four who visited England during February and March, 1945, as guest of the British Ministry of Information and the British Trades Union Congress.

THE MACHINISTS

The 1945 convention of the International Association of Machinists,

which met in New York in November, defeated by a vote of 2173 to 1958 a proposal to eliminate from the union's ritual the word "white" respecting qualifications for membership. Analysis of the vote revealed that local machinists' unions in the railroad industry in the South and in small job machine shops led the opposition. The locals from the large mass production plants led the fight to eliminate racial qualifications for membership.

Despite the ritual restrictions Negroes were accepted as members of I.A.M. Local 703 with jurisdiction over 5000 employees at the Curtiss-Wright Propeller Corporation in Clifton and Caldwell, N.J. In January, 1944, this local elected a Negro, Thomas Bell, to its executive board.

THE BOILERMAKERS

The International Brotherhood of Boilermakers, Iron Ship Builders and Helpers of America, A. F. of L., held its annual convention in Kansas City in February, 1944. Attempting to meet the criticisms of the courts, FEPC, and the Negro representatives of some 15,000 Negro members in auxiliary local unions, the convention decided to change the status of its auxiliary Negro locals by permitting them to elect delegates to district councils to national conventions, and to elect representatives to function on bargaining and grievance committees.

On February 14, 1944, representatives of Negro workers obtained a preliminary injunction from a county court in California restraining the Marinship Company from discharging them for refusing to pay dues to the boilermakers' union through a segregated auxiliary for Negroes only. Their discharge was required by the union's closed shop agreement with the company.

On January 2, 1945, the Supreme Court of the State of California unanimously affirmed the decision of the county court. Speaking for the court, Chief Justice Phil S. Gibson stated:

In our opinion an arbitrary closed union is incompatible with the closed shop . . . where a union has, as in this case, attained a monopoly of the supply of labor by means of a closed shop agreement and other forms of collective labor action, such a union occupies a quasi-public position similar to that of a public service business and it has corresponding obligations. . . .

If the union imposes unreasonable and discriminatory restrictions upon Negroes not placed upon members of Local No. 2 (a local for whites only) and if the auxiliary does not afford its members privileges and protection substantially afforded to members of Local No. 6 (another local for whites only) then to compel Negroes to join the auxiliary, upon penalty of discharge, is equivalent to a complete denial of union membership.

The California Superior Court in June, 1945, enjoined the Cal-Ship-Consolidated-Western Pipe and Steel companies from discharging a group of Negro workers who were refusing to pay dues to the boilermakers' union through another all-Negro auxiliary.

LOCOMOTIVE FIREMEN CASE

By 1941 the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen could expect to achieve within twenty years one of its main objectives. That objective, pursued for nearly forty-five years, is the elimination of Negro firemen in the railroad industry. In this objective the locomotive firemen were acting in harmony with the railroad brotherhoods who were desirous of limiting Negro employment on the railroads.

During the depression Negro firemen were beaten and murdered by unknown white men in an effort to frighten Negroes out of the occupation. As a result of the violence, at least ten Negroes were killed and thirty others were wounded.

In 1937 the Interstate Commerce Commission ordered the railroads to install by July, 1943, mechanical stokers on locomotives operated in a certain class of transportation. The Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, from which Negroes were excluded, negotiated agreements or reached understandings with many railroads to use only union firemen on stokers.

A similar agreement between the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and twenty-one southern railroads, approved in 1941, in effect barred Negro firemen from employment on Diesel-powered locomotives. Thus, by devising methods to prevent Negro firemen from tending stokers and Diesel engines, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen could expect to see the complete elimination of the Negro firemen as the old "hand-fired" engines were replaced.

To block this conspiracy, recover-damages appeals were made in June, 1944, to the United States Supreme Court on behalf of two Negro firemen, Tom Tunstall, employed by the Norfolk and Southern Railroad, and Bester W. Steele, employed by the Louisville and National Railroad. Two lower courts had returned adverse decisions against Steele and Tunstall on the ground that the courts had no jurisdiction in the cases. As a friend of the court the United States government, through the Attorney General, filed a brief with the Supreme Court supporting the appeal of Tunstall and Steele.

The arguments presented to the court on behalf of the Negro firemen were: that under the principle of majority rule the majority was using power conferred by the government to exploit and suppress the minority, that implicit in the grant of exclusive collective bargaining rights to a union is the correlative duty of the representative to act in behalf of all the employees in the bargaining unit without discrimination.

The court was told:

Congress would not have incapacitated a minority or an individual from representing itself or his own interests without imposing upon the craft representative a duty to serve on behalf of the craft as a whole, and not merely for the benefit of certain portions of it favored as a result of discrimination against others.

In a unanimous decision on December 18, 1944, the United States Supreme Court upheld the view that the courts have jurisdiction and remanded the case to the lower courts for a full argument on the merit of the claims for damages and injunctive relief.

For the court, Chief Justice Harlan Fiske Stone stated:

Unless the labor union representing a craft owes some duty to represent non-union members of the craft, at least to the extent of not discriminating against them as such in the contracts which it makes as representatives, the minority would be left without means of protecting their interest, or indeed their rights to earn a livelihood by pursuing the occupation in which they are employed.

In a separate but concurring opinion Justice Frank Murphy stated:

The utter disregard for the dignity and well-being of colored citizens shown by the record is so pronounced as to demand the invocation of constitutional condemnation to decide the case and to analyze the statute solely upon the basis of legal niceties while remaining mute and placid as to the obvious and oppressive deprivation of constitutional guarantees is to make the judicial something less than it should be.

Suffice it to say this constitutional issue cannot be lightly discussed. The cloak of racism surrounding the action of the brotherhood in refusing membership to

Negroes and in entering into an enforcing agreement discriminating against them, all under the guise of constitutional authority, still remains. No statutory interpretation can erase this ugly example of economic cruelty against colored citizens of the United States.

Nothing can destroy the fact that the accident of birth has been used as the basis to abuse individual rights by an organization purporting to act in conformity with Congressional mandate. Any attempt to interpret the act (Railway Labor Act) must take into account and must realize that the constitutionality of the statute in this respect depends upon the answer given.

The Constitution voices its disapproval whenever economic discrimination is applied under authority of law against any race, creed, or color.

THE RAILWAY MAIL ASSOCIATION CASE

On June 19, 1945, the Supreme Court of the United States upheld the authority of the State of New York to place, through its civil rights laws, reasonable restrictions upon trade unions operating within the jurisdiction of the state.

In violation of the New York civil rights law the Railway Mail Association continued to function as a union while limiting its membership to railway clerks who are "native American Indians and members of the Caucasian race." The association had sought an injunction restraining the state from enforcing the law with respect to the association's practices.

In a unanimous decision the United States Supreme Court declared:

"We see no constitutional basis for the contention that a state cannot protect workers from exclusion solely on the basis of race, color or creed by an organization, functioning under the

protection of the state which holds itself out to represent the general business needs of employees."

SENIORITY

Early in 1944 persons interested in equal job rights for Negro workers turned their attention to the problem of postwar unemployment. Officials of the National Negro Congress and some union leaders associated with the Congress proposed that the standard, customary rules of seniority be changed to allow preferential treatment of Negroes. The object of this preferential treatment, or super-seniority, was to allow Negroes to be retained in occupations in larger numbers than they would be under the usual seniority system.

The proposal was condemned by the Congress of Industrial Organizations, by the United Transport Service Employees of America, and by the National Urban League. At their 1944 conventions these organizations expressed the opinion that any changes in the seniority system for the purposes indicated would do Negro workers more harm than good. The convention of the United Federal Workers of America, October, 1944, declared itself in favor of "maintaining employment gains made by Negro workers," but decided not to endorse proportional layoffs of Negro and white workers as a means of preventing heavy discharge of Negroes.

STRIKES WITH A DISTINCT NEGRO EMPHASIS

Strikes by white workers against the employment or promotion of Negro workers sharply declined during 1944 and had almost completely vanished by the late summer of 1945. Of 4956 strikes and lockouts in 1944, 57 involved racial issues primarily, resulting from efforts of white workers to prevent the employment, promotion, or transfer of Negroes. However most unions actively aided the promotion and employment of Negro workers in

industry. Two of the unions which tried hardest to integrate Negroes had to contend with the most bitter anti-Negro strikes.

A few of the 57 strikes which involved racial issues in 1944 were favorable to Negroes. Those which came to public notice had as their purpose to force employers in particular plants to integrate Negroes or in other ways accord them equal treatment.

Association of Machinists—A. F. of L.

When, in July, 1944, the local management of the Pratt and Whitney Aircraft Corporation in Kansas City, Mo., on the advice of the A. F. of L. International Association of Machinists, refused to remove signs over cafeteria entrances labeled "For Colored Only" or "For White Only," 1300 Negroes went out on strike in protest. The strike was discontinued on the advice of representatives of the NAACP, the Urban League, the War Manpower Commission, and the Y.W.C.A. The signs remained.

United Steelworkers—CIO

Over 1000 white employees at the Pullman Standard Car Manufacturing Company in Chicago went on strike in December, 1944, to prevent a Negro pipe fitter from being promoted to a position of gang leader. The company made the promotion because the Negro pipe fitter's seniority entitled him to the job. After a week the strike failed in the face of strong opposition from the company, civic leaders, and the CIO United Steelworkers of America.

Charging that a Negro worker who had a dispute with a white fellow worker had been unfairly disciplined by the management of the American Cast Iron and Pipe Company in Birmingham, Ala., in June, 1944, 650 Negro employees went on strike in protest. The strikers, represented by the CIO United Steelworkers of America, went back to work when a formal grievance was presented to the company through the regular collective bargaining chan-

nels between the company and the union.

At the American Steel Foundries plant in East St. Louis, Ill., 30 white employees quit in protest, in July, 1944, against elevating a Negro to a position of crane operator. The action of the strikers was opposed by the CIO United Steelworkers' union and the Negro remained in his new job.

Opposed by both the management of the Allied Steel Castings Company in Harvey, Ill., and the CIO United Steelworkers of America, 300 white employees were forced to discontinue their four-day-old strike in July, 1944, to force the management to maintain segregated toilets and washing rooms for Negroes.

United Textile Workers of America —CIO

To prevent the Long Mill, Riverside Division of the Riverside and Dan River Cotton Mills in Danville, Va., from employing 50 Negroes as spinners, though in completely segregated rooms, 3000 white spinners represented by the CIO Textile Workers Union went on strike in May, 1944. The white women claimed they would not spool thread spun by Negroes. The strike ended when the Negroes were demoted.

To force the Diamond Fibre Company in Bridgeport, Pa., to stop discriminating against Negroes, 500 of the company's white employees represented by the CIO United Textile Workers Union engaged in a strike in June, 1944, which lasted three weeks. The strike was ended after the employees were assured that discrimination against Negroes would cease.

Aircraft and Agricultural Implement Workers—CIO

To prevent two Negro women from working as drill press operators at the Kurz-Kash Company in Dayton, O., 700 white employees, members of the A. F. of L. Metal Polishers, Buffers, Platers and Helpers Union, went out on strike in April, 1945. In the face

of opposition from the company, the War Manpower Commission, and the Army, the strike was broken and the Negro women remained on the job.

At the Wright Aeronautical Corporation in Cincinnati, 15,000 white employees, represented by the CIO United Automobile Workers Union, conducted an unauthorized strike in June, 1944, to prevent the company from promoting seven Negroes to positions as engine lathe operators. With the support of the company and the CIO-UAW officials, the strike was broken and the promotion of Negroes continued.

At the Packard Motor Car Company in Detroit, 39,000 workers were laid off when white metal polishers went on strike in October, 1944, to prevent the promotion of four Negroes as metal polishers. Officials of the CIO Automobile Workers Union condemned the strike and ordered the strikers back to work. On the basis of their seniority the four Negroes remained on their jobs as polishers.

At the Delco Products Division of the General Motors Corporation in Norwood, O., 100 white employees went on strike on April 18, 1945, protesting their having to work with a Negro. Failing to get the support of their union, the CIO-UAW, the strike failed and the workers returned to the plant on April 21.

STREET, ELECTRIC RAILWAY AND MOTOR COACH EMPLOYEES

Capital Transit Case: Washington, D.C.

On January 16, 1945, E. D. Merrill, President of the Capital Transit Company in Washington, D.C., stated to the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice that his company, fearing that employing Negroes as bus and trolley operators would cause a strike of 70 percent of its employees, had therefore refused to comply with an order of the committee issued on November 30, 1942, to discontinue discrimination against qualified Negroes.

The company's representative based his charge on threats made by representatives of the employees and on the refusal of 16 white employees, all members of the Amalgamated Association of Street Electric Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America, Local 1689, A. F. of L., to instruct Bernard A. Simmons, a Negro, in the duties of an operator.

On November 21, 1945, President Truman seized the Capital Transit properties and placed them under the operation of the Office of Defense Transportation. This action was taken to insure continuous operation during a dispute over working conditions between the company and its employees. Learning that the committee was ready on December 7, 1945, to issue another order concerning discrimination against Negroes, President Truman instructed the committee to "postpone" any action with respect to its findings.

In a sharply worded letter, Attorney Charles H. Houston resigned as a member of the FEPC and informed President Truman:

Your action in the Capital Transit case means that you do not hesitate to seize Capital Transit when employees strike in violation of a private collective bargaining agreement, but will not move or permit the committee to move to effectuate the national non-discriminatory employment declared in Presidential Executive Orders.

In a letter accepting Attorney Houston's resignation, President Truman stated:

The law requires that when the Government seizes a property under such circumstances, it "shall be operated under the terms and conditions of employment which were in effect at the time possession of such mine, plant, or facility was so taken."

In view of this apparent contra-

diction between the law and the order which the Fair Employment Practice Committee proposed to issue, it was thought best to suggest that the order be temporarily postponed. The property was not seized for the purpose of enforcing the aims of the Fair Employment Practice Committee, laudable as these aims are, but to guarantee transportation for the citizens of Washington and vicinity.

In rebuttal Attorney Houston stated that during the period in which the government operated the lines of the Philadelphia Transit Company, Negroes were employed as street car and bus operators. No further action had been taken on the matter up to the end of 1946.

Los Angeles Transit Case

The long and successful opposition of a local union of the A. F. of L. Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America to effect the employment of Negro bus and street car operators by the Los Angeles Railway Corporation caused the FEPC to conduct a public investigation of the situation on August 8, 1944.

J. Stewart Neary, attorney for the company, reported that on two previous occasions when the company had attempted to promote Negroes to positions as mechanics and operators the white employees went out on strike. In the face of this experience and the opposition of the union, the company felt "circumstances" were "entirely beyond its control." "We cannot afford to tie up the whole transportation system of the city of Los Angeles."

At the hearings the president of the local union stated that in accordance with the constitution of the national union, the local union did not discriminate because of "race, creed, or color." Both the corporation and the union agreed that in order to effect the promotion of Negroes, the federal

government, through the FEPC, would have to issue a directive. This was done.

The training of Negroes for positions as operators and conductors began on August 23, 1944. On September 14, Negroes began operating cars in Los Angeles without incident.

Philadelphia Transit Case

On July 1, 1944, the War Manpower Commission in Philadelphia announced that under its priority referrals program it would not refer any type of worker to those employers guilty of discrimination in violation of Executive Orders 8802 and 9346 forbidding discrimination in war industries or government service because of race, creed, color, or national origin.

In spite of a directive from FEPC on November 16, 1943, the Philadelphia Transit Company acceded to the demand of an independent union, the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Employees Union, that the company continue to refuse promotions to Negroes as car operators.

Under the combined pressure of FEPC and the War Manpower Commission, the company announced on July 8, 1944, that it would accept applications from Negroes for employment as operators of cars and buses and for promotion to operator positions upon the same terms as white workers. Previously, Negroes had been employed only in the company's shops. Following this announcement, the company accepted applications from Negroes for operator positions and instituted a training program for them.

On August 1, 1944, eight Negroes were ready to make their trial runs as operators. By the close of the day approximately 6000 white employees of the company went out on strike in an effort to force the company to demote the Negro operators.

On August 3, pursuant to an executive order of President Roosevelt, the Secretary of War took possession of

the facilities with troops under the command of Major General Philip Hayes, Commander of the Third Service Command. On August 4, the Attorney General directed an immediate investigation of the strike by the FBI to determine whether there had been any violation of a federal statute, particularly the Smith-Connally Act.

The next day, August 5, the Attorney General requested United States Attorney Gerald A. Gleeson in Philadelphia to arrange for the calling of a grand jury to investigate all the circumstances in connection with the strike. Strike leaders who encouraged men to remain on strike after Army seizure were arrested. By August 7 the strike was broken and all lines were in full operation.

Immediately after the conclusion of the strike the Philadelphia Transit Company (August 9) signed an agreement with the CIO Transport Workers Union, which had been selected by the employees as their bargaining agent as far back as June 30.

The Army turned the lines back to the company on August 17 and the eight Negroes continued to work as car operators. In a union election on October 11, a Negro was elected vice-president of the local union.

During the strike one white man was killed, two Negro youths shot, and 365 Negro men and women were arrested. Later, in the federal court 27 white motormen and conductors were fined \$100 each for their part in the strike.

Cities Using Negro Transit Operators

By the end of 1945 Negroes were operating motor coaches, streetcars or elevated lines in at least fourteen cities. In collective bargaining matters these employees were represented in two cases by the CIO Transport Workers Union, but largely by the A. F. of L. Amalgamated Association of Street Railway and Motor Coach Employees of America. The following cities were among those in which Negro operators were being used: Tulsa, Okla.; De-

troit, Mich.; Cleveland, O.; Winston Salem, N.C.; Chicago, Ill.; Minneapolis, Minn.; San Francisco, Cal.; Los Angeles, Cal.; Boston, Mass.; Philadelphia, Pa.; New York and Buffalo, N.Y.; Indianapolis, Ind.; and Tacoma, Wash.

NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS BOARD

In two decisions in 1945 the National Labor Relations Board clarified its attitude toward auxiliary segregated local unions for Negro workers. In these two cases the NLRB expressed the view that separate or auxiliary local unions for Negroes do not necessarily constitute a violation of national policy nor of the principle of free collective bargaining as expressed in the National Labor Relations Act.

On February 23, 1945, the CIO pleaded to dissolve Negro Local 2193 or cancel certification. On February 25 it ordered dissolution by March 10 or show cause why certification should not be canceled. On June 21, 1945, the NLRB took up the case in Philadelphia.

In March of 1944, in Richmond, Va., the International Tobacco Workers Union, A. F. of L., was certified by the NLRB as the bargaining agent for Negro and white employees of Larus and Brothers, Inc., after defeating its rival union, the CIO Food, Tobacco, Agricultural and Allied Workers Union of America, in an election at the plant.

Immediately after the election the A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers Union established at the plant Local 219 for white workers and 2193 for Negroes, who were approximately one third of the company's employees. An agreement was eventually signed between Local 219 representing the white employees only.

George Benjamin, Negro, as vice-president of the A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers Union, stated that he had encouraged the Negro workers to organize the separate local in order to

give them a chance to "develop leadership." No provision was made to allow representatives of the Negro auxiliary to bargain with the company.

In December, 1944, the CIO Food and Tobacco Workers Union on behalf of the Negro employees charged before the regional examiner of the NLRB that the A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers had, by setting up a segregated local for Negro employees, changed the bargaining agent and was denying Negro employees equal and adequate representation in the collective bargaining process. As a consequence the petitioners felt that the certification of the A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers should be either canceled or amended to allow the Negroes to bargain for themselves.

On February 25, 1945, the regional examiner for the NLRB found that the separate local for Negroes denied some employees in the bargaining unit "equal representation," that the agreement between Local 219 and the company did not "confer equal rights and privileges to all employees in the unit," and that segregation of the sort complained of was contrary to the national policy and the policies of the NLRB. The A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers Union was given fifteen days in which to dissolve the Negro auxiliary or show cause why its certification should not be canceled.

According to regular procedure the decision of the regional examiner was submitted to the National Labor Relations Board in Washington for review and final approval. Additional testimony was taken by the NLRB on June 21, 1945.

In the meantime the NLRB also had under consideration a similar case involving Negro and white workers at the Atlanta Oak Flooring Company in Atlanta, Ga. The employees were represented by another A. F. of L. union, the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America.

In an effort to prevent certification of the A. F. of L. Carpenters Union as

the bargaining agent, the Atlanta Oak Flooring Company charged that the union did not represent a majority of its employees. The company emphasized the fact that the A. F. of L. Carpenters Union engages in "illegal and discriminatory segregation of employees on the sole basis of race and color."

In the latter case the NLRB decided in July, 1944, that separation of Negro and white workers in different sections of the same bargaining unit was not necessarily prejudicial to the interests of either group so long as each unit is accorded equal protection under the contract. The opinion stated:

"... if it be shown by appropriate motion that equal representation has been denied to any of the employees in the unit hereinafter found appropriate because of race, color, creed or national origin, we will consider rescinding any certification which we may issue herein."

In the case involving the employees of the Larus and Brothers Company, the NLRB found that the A. F. of L. Tobacco Workers "did fail to perform its full statutory duty under the cer-

tification" in that the agreement signed by the company with Local 219 had not specified that the terms were also applicable to and on behalf of employees in the Negro local.

In clarification of its policy on auxiliary locals the NLRB stated:

This board has been vigilant within the limited powers given it by Congress to see to it that certifications under the National Labor Relations Board Act should not be made the vehicle of discriminating racial practices by labor organizations. We have consistently refused to recognize a petition for representation if the petition proposes, either explicitly or implicitly, to exclude Negroes from the bargaining unit on the basis of race. We have also refused to entertain petitions from joint bargaining representatives which do not admit locals composed of colored employees to the councils of the bargaining organization. . . . The board has no express authority to remedy undemocratic practices within the structure of union organizations.

EDUCATION

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Source: United States Office of Education

Separate schools for white and Negro pupils are maintained by 17 southern states and the District of Columbia. These states make reports to the United States Office of Education on schools for Negroes only, in addition to their reports for the total school system. In order to emphasize the situation with regard to Negro schools, comparisons with white schools are made throughout this section.

Enrollment

Approximately 85.9 percent of the Negro population 5-17 years of age in the 17 southern states and the District of Columbia was enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools in 1939-1940. For that year the corresponding percentage was 85.3 (table 1).

During the last two decades important changes have occurred in the grade enrollments of Negro children as the disproportionately large percentages in the first three grades have gradually declined and the higher grades have had corresponding increases in enrollment (table 1).

Even so, the proportions of the total elementary and secondary school enrollment in the first three grades remain high in comparison with whites, a resultant of the many factors involved in poorer educational opportunities for Negro than for white children (table 5). At the same time the trend toward a more normal grade distribution is directly associated with the development of Negro schools.

More and more Negro children are entering high school. In 1919-1920, 1929-1930, and 1941-1942, the percentages of the total elementary and secondary school enrollments in high school were 1.6, 4.9, and 11.4, respectively. The corresponding proportions for whites were 8.2, 16.0, and 23.7 (table 5).

For secondary schools as a whole there has been a long-time trend toward an increasing proportion of boys, except for the slight decrease from 1939-1940 to 1941-1942 as a result of the war. Unpublished data show that in 1941-1942 boys constituted 39.5 percent of the total high school enrollment of Negro youth in comparison with 47.2 percent for white youth in the same states.

The increased enrollments in high school have been accompanied by an increased number of high school graduates. In 1941-1942 there were 33,784 Negro high school graduates in the 17 southern states and the District of Columbia in comparison with 30,009 in 1939-1940. The average age of the 1941-1942 graduates, as of June 1, 1942, was 18.1, about 0.4 older than the average for white graduates in the same states. (High school graduates by states, table 9.)

Attendance

The proportion of enrolled Negro pupils in average daily attendance has been increasing steadily from biennium to biennium so that by 1941-1942, slightly more than 4 out of 5 Negro

children enrolled in school in the 17 southern states and the District of Columbia were in average daily attendance (table 7). This, however, is to be compared with about 6 out of 7 white children in the same states, which means that the proportion of absences per school day was approximately 1.2 times as high for Negro as for white pupils.

School Term

The average length of school term for Negro children is gradually approaching that for white children. By 1941-1942, school terms in states with separate schools for white and Negro pupils averaged 171 days for whites and 156 days for Negroes (table 4). The averages conceal the fact that in half of the states (Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia and West Virginia, and the District of Columbia) school terms are at least as long for Negroes as for whites.

The difference in average length of term cited above is largely due to the much shorter terms for Negro than for white children in Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina. Even in states with average terms for Negroes equal to or longer than those for whites, Negro children attend school fewer days on the average than white pupils. This tends to emphasize the importance not only of availability of educational opportunities, but also of the extent to which those opportunities are utilized.

Teachers and Other Instructional Staff

Accompanying the increased enrollments of Negro children has been an increase in the number of teachers and other instructional staff. In 1941-1942 there were 243 supervisors, 1200 principals, and 64,729 teachers in the schools for Negro children in 17 southern states and the District of Columbia (table 7). Almost half, 46 percent, of

the high school staffs consist of men (table 2). While the effect of the war in creating shortages of teachers affected Negro as well as white schools, its impact upon Negro schools was less marked. This may be interpreted in terms of the fact that the alternatives to teaching offer fewer inducements to Negroes than to whites.

Pupil-Teacher Ratios

The number of pupils enrolled per instructional staff member in 17 southern states and the District of Columbia in 1941-1942 was 36.1 for Negroes and 28.6 for whites (table 10). A difference in favor of the whites existed in each state except Kentucky and Oklahoma. In 3 states (Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi) the average Negro enrollment per member of instructional staff was over 40.

Average Annual Salaries of Instructional Staff

In spite of the gradual trend toward equalization of remuneration for white and Negro teachers with comparable training and experience, wide differences in teachers' salaries persist. In the 14 southern states reporting on this item for 1941-1942, average salaries for Negroes ranged from \$226 in Mississippi to \$1593 in Maryland in comparison with a range for whites from \$712 in Mississippi to \$1796 in Delaware (table 4). In 6 of the 14 states reporting, the average annual salary of Negro teachers was less than \$600.

Data for any given year show the wide differences which still exist in many states between educational opportunities for white and Negro children. Another basis for comparison is the status of public education for Negroes today as compared with even 10 or 12 years ago. This approach has been used elsewhere¹ and should be taken into account in any attempt to evaluate the present status of Negro educational opportunity.

¹ See United States Office of Education: *A Decade of Progress*.

TABLE 1.—WHITE AND NEGRO SCHOOL POPULATION AND ENROLLMENT IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES
AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, FOR SPECIFIED YEARS

Item	1929-1930		1937-1938		1939-1940		1941-1942	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Population 5-17 years of age, inclusive ¹	8,328,914	2,902,657	8,942,822	2,988,300	8,915,305	2,827,565	(3)	(3)
Enrollment in elementary and secondary schools.....	7,444,731	2,282,578	7,083,000	2,411,907	7,608,378	2,428,842	7,350,663	2,386,471
Enrollment in public schools as percent of school population.....	89.4	78.6	85.9	80.7	85.3	85.9

¹ United States Bureau of the Census. Estimated for intercensal years.

² Population for 1941-1942 unavailable.

TABLE 2.—STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF NEGRO PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1920-1942

Item	1919-1920		1929-1930		1939-1940		1941-1942	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Total population.....	9,090,532	2,899,246	9,585,417	10,275,347	9,585,417	10,275,347
Negro children 5-17 years of age, inclusive.....	2,899,246	2,902,657	2,902,657	2,827,565	2,902,657	2,827,565
Pupils enrolled in elementary grades.....	2,070,374	1,169,992	2,169,992	2,174,262	2,169,992	2,174,262	2,113,288	2,113,288
Pupils enrolled in high school grades.....	33,341	112,586	112,586	254,580	112,586	254,580	275,183	275,183
Total enrolled in elementary and high school grades.....	2,103,715	2,282,578	2,282,578	2,428,842	2,282,578	2,428,842	2,386,471	2,386,471
Average daily attendance.....	1,416,206	1,645,518	1,645,518	1,953,401	1,645,518	1,953,401	1,947,268	1,947,268
Total number of days attended by all pupils enrolled.....	168,414,206	217,754,344	217,754,344	305,344,350	217,754,344	305,344,350	305,372,789	305,372,789
Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled during the year.....	80	97	97	126	97	126	128	128
Average length of school term in days.....	119	132	132	156	132	156	157	157
Percentage of school population enrolled.....	72.6	78.6	78.6	85.9	78.6	85.9
Percentage of enrolled pupils in daily attendance.....	67.3	72.1	72.1	80.4	72.1	80.4	81.6	81.6
Percentage of pupils in high schools.....	1.6	4.9	4.9	10.5	4.9	10.5	11.4	11.4
Instructional staff:								
Elementary schools								
Men.....	6,398	6,246	6,246	7,277	6,246	7,277	7,024	7,024
Women.....	31,227	39,801	39,801	45,446	39,801	45,446	46,605	46,605
High schools								
Men.....	457	2,395	2,395	5,735	2,395	5,735	5,946	5,946
Women.....	478	2,836	2,836	6,018	2,836	6,018	6,597	6,597

TABLE 3.—WHITE AND NEGRO SCHOOL POPULATION JULY 1, 1940, AND ENROLLMENT AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF IN PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1941-1942

State or District of Columbia	Estimated Population 5-17 Years of Age, Inclusive, July 1, 1940		Percent Distribution of School Population		Enrollment in Elementary and Secondary Schools		Instructional Staff	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Total	8,915,305	2,827,565	76.0	24.0	7,350,663	2,386,471	257,073	66,174
Alabama	514,005	291,934	63.8	36.2	432,096	234,642	14,133	5,873
Arkansas	402,269	132,572	75.2	24.8	332,801	108,305	10,181	2,629
Delaware	46,376	8,112	85.1	14.9	35,542	6,963	1,421	258
Florida	303,267	123,157	71.1	28.9	266,073	102,962	10,371	3,435
Georgia	528,192	309,803	63.0	37.0	452,448	260,646	15,409	6,895
Kentucky	710,666	49,534	93.5	6.5	534,149	40,958	17,436	1,476
Louisiana	387,646	232,324	62.5	37.5	288,324	173,511	10,773	4,313
Maryland	320,078	74,315	81.2	18.8	227,131	59,843	7,338	1,749
Mississippi	296,961	314,787	48.5	51.5	303,039	290,389	10,300	6,854
Missouri	762,649	50,256	93.8	6.2	643,628	51,151	23,690	1,537
North Carolina	718,053	308,944	69.9	30.1	604,428	267,337	18,870	7,433
Oklahoma	564,974	45,852	93.5	6.5	469,649	40,615	17,548	1,706
South Carolina	293,714	268,479	52.2	47.8	262,580	212,630	9,577	5,878
Tennessee	634,303	122,989	83.8	16.2	528,954	106,782	18,082	2,980
Texas	1,368,091	236,668	85.3	14.7	1,087,264	216,059	40,863	6,715
Virginia	499,443	191,991	72.2	27.8	408,658	147,719	13,839	4,237
West Virginia	494,790	29,703	94.3	5.7	415,070	28,267	15,104	1,032
District of Columbia	69,828	36,145	65.9	34.1	58,829	37,691	2,138	1,174

TABLE 4.—LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM, SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF WHITE AND NEGRO INSTRUCTIONAL STAFFS IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1941-1942⁴

State or District of Columbia	Length of School Term in Days		Average Number of Days Attended by Each Pupil Enrolled		Percent of School Term Not Attended		Percent of Pupils Attending Daily		Average Annual Salary per Unit of Instructional Staff	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Total	170.2	156.8	143.5	128.0	15.1	18.4	84.9	81.6
Alabama	159.9	151.3	134.4	126.2	15.9	16.6	84.1	83.4	923	458
Arkansas	164.8	146.9	131.6	116.5	20.2	20.7	79.8	79.3	740	441
Delaware	182.6	183.4	161.2	153.8	15.7	16.1	84.3	83.9	1,796	1,440
Florida	170.5	166.0	150.5	141.9	11.7	14.5	88.3	85.5	1,282	671
Georgia	167.5	154.9	139.0	121.8	17.0	21.3	83.0	78.7	961	460
Kentucky	157.6	170.3	128.1	138.7	18.7	18.6	81.3	81.4	1,302	547
Louisiana	175.7	152.9	148.3	127.4	15.6	16.7	84.4	83.3	1,741	1,593
Maryland	180.2	185.5	160.6	158.9	10.9	14.3	89.1	85.7	712	226
Mississippi	165.4	124.1	141.9	138.4	19.2	18.9	80.8	81.1	1,211	1,403
Missouri	174.7	178.7	150.3	140.4	8.7	14.6	91.3	85.4	1,079	867
North Carolina	164.7	164.5	150.8	148.4	14.4	15.2	85.6	84.8	1,125	1,074
Oklahoma	176.2	175.0	146.5	116.0	15.7	22.8	84.3	77.2	1,038	465
South Carolina	173.8	150.2	146.5	116.0	15.7	22.8	84.3	77.2	1,038	465
Tennessee	165.9	166.0	137.0	137.3	17.4	17.3	82.6	82.7	1,147	754
Texas	173.6	163.6	142.1	125.2	18.1	23.5	81.9	76.5	1,133	765
Virginia	180.0	180.0	157.5	151.3	12.5	16.0	87.5	84.0	1,133	765
West Virginia	172.5	171.5	153.6	154.2	10.9	10.1	89.1	89.9	2,329	2,329
District of Columbia	169.4	170.1	143.6	143.9	15.2	15.3	84.8	84.7	2,329	2,329

⁴ Supervisors, principals, and teachers.

TABLE 5.—ENROLLMENT, BY GRADE, OF WHITE AND NEGRO PUPILS IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1920-1942

Grade	1919-1920			1929-1930			1939-1940			1941-1942				
	White	Negro	Per- cent	White	Negro	Per- cent	White	Negro	Per- cent	White	Negro	Per- cent		
Total	6,279,236	100.0	2,103,715	100.0	7,744,731	100.0	2,282,578	100.0	7,608,378	100.0	2,428,842	100.0	2,386,471	100.0
Elementary schools...	5,762,612	91.8	2,070,374	98.4	6,251,067	84.0	2,169,992	95.1	5,850,805	76.9	2,174,262	89.5	5,604,782	88.6
Kindergarten	78,622	1.2	3,058	0.1	56,167	0.8	3,970	0.2	44,459	0.6	7,621	0.3	45,054	0.3
First grade	1,237,969	19.7	810,640	38.5	1,425,252	19.1	785,281	34.4	1,040,024	13.7	632,468	26.0	973,924	13.9
Second grade	790,066	12.6	397,440	18.9	875,462	11.5	334,756	14.7	788,058	10.4	311,405	12.8	725,451	9.9
Third grade	795,913	12.7	313,381	14.9	853,905	11.5	293,014	12.8	778,897	10.2	295,038	12.1	724,683	9.9
Fourth grade	786,168	12.5	237,093	11.3	799,815	10.7	272,664	11.3	768,239	10.1	274,420	11.3	739,294	10.1
Fifth grade	696,951	11.1	158,255	7.5	714,411	9.6	202,341	8.9	736,273	9.7	238,198	9.8	700,785	9.5
Sixth grade	612,415	9.8	90,037	4.3	654,884	8.8	150,463	6.6	695,568	9.1	198,234	8.2	676,722	9.2
Seventh grade	503,523	8.0	48,206	2.3	567,914	7.6	105,504	4.6	649,580	8.5	159,475	6.6	643,362	8.7
Eighth grade	260,985	4.2	12,252	0.6	303,257	4.1	37,399	1.6	349,707	4.6	57,403	2.4	375,507	5.1
High schools	516,624	8.2	33,341	1.6	1,193,664	16.0	112,586	4.9	1,757,573	23.1	254,580	10.5	1,745,881	23.7
First year	227,049	3.6	19,078	0.9	429,894	5.8	47,765	2.1	553,335	7.3	99,094	4.1	543,151	7.4
Second year	142,381	2.3	8,314	0.4	327,580	4.2	31,004	1.3	466,934	6.1	69,244	2.9	458,159	6.2
Third year	91,341	1.4	4,113	0.2	247,255	3.3	20,945	0.9	331,989	5.2	49,300	2.0	384,687	5.4
Fourth year	55,853	0.9	1,836	0.1	188,926	2.5	13,772	0.6	330,970	4.3	36,208	1.5	340,592	4.6
Postgraduate	12,345	0.2	734	..	9,292	0.1

TABLE 6.—ENROLLMENT OF NEGRO PUPILS BY GRADE, IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, 1941-1942

KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS													SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS			
State or District of Columbia	Grand Total	Kindergarten	First grade	Second grade	Third grade	Fourth grade	Fifth grade	Sixth grade	Seventh grade	Eighth grade	Total	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year	Post-graduate
Total.....	2,113,288	1,739	593,369	294,753	778,985	456,845	234,320	197,874	171,974	76,829	373,183	102,939	74,273	54,498	40,500	974
Alabama.....	215,418	..	60,739	29,616	28,497	26,373	23,739	21,104	15,222	10,978	19,224	7,515	5,244	3,778	2,887	..
Arkansas.....	168,305	..	28,570	12,356	12,561	12,644	11,133	9,370	7,452	5,917	17,882	3,212	2,141	1,411	1,118	..
Delaware.....	6,983	66	985	794	762	733	771	651	656	531	1,014	431	300	180	103	..
Florida.....	89,906	..	19,492	12,190	11,833	11,611	10,537	9,441	8,080	6,872	13,057	4,950	2,613	2,603	1,591	..
Georgia.....	238,832	163	79,266	34,929	32,532	30,431	24,739	19,242	15,777	14,031	21,814	8,993	5,967	4,034	2,820	..
Kentucky.....	34,137	..	6,894	4,226	4,287	4,356	3,866	3,373	2,865	3,373	6,831	2,392	2,018	1,393	1,028	..
Louisiana.....	173,511	36	48,234	22,818	21,968	20,458	16,856	13,628	11,155	..	17,859	7,308	4,681	2,835	2,399	36
Maryland.....	59,489	1,298	8,604	7,579	7,112	6,913	6,395	5,755	5,146	1,639	9,413	3,417	2,687	1,843	1,457	..
Mississippi.....	279,066	..	104,540	37,151	33,190	21,930	25,438	19,318	19,165	18,379	11,323	4,356	2,903	2,002	1,461	..
North Carolina.....	247,321	2,291	67,983	33,366	31,127	29,538	26,743	24,402	23,309	3,931	47,821	20,100	12,201	7,108	4,317	720
South Carolina.....	33,332	..	7,039	3,750	3,927	3,435	3,193	2,773	2,339	2,812	5,782	1,833	1,153	910	614	58
Oklahoma.....	40,615	..	5,537	2,968	2,157	2,559	2,193	1,851	1,514	..	19,839	7,960	5,416	3,725	1,394	..
Tennessee.....	192,991	..	55,372	29,636	27,357	25,759	21,932	18,151	15,134	..	19,839	7,960	5,416	3,725	1,394	..
Texas.....	106,793	..	21,876	12,302	12,164	11,689	10,692	9,186	8,481	7,069	13,333	4,745	3,541	2,804	2,241	..
Virginia.....	177,740	112	43,417	22,061	22,640	22,889	21,152	19,137	17,636	9,220	33,419	13,824	10,144	7,926	6,193	37
West Virginia.....	147,719	135,234	733	29,093	18,175	17,442	15,539	13,137	11,103	1,050	28,265	8,307	6,164	4,378	3,596	27
District of Columbia	38,357	28,354	2,641	3,765	2,439	2,626	2,752	2,866	2,671	2,585	5,913	2,122	1,580	1,181	1,044	26
District of Columbia	37,691	30,754	2,641	4,693	3,815	3,567	3,503	2,971	2,407	2,343	6,937	2,455	2,270	1,811	1,644	107

TABLE 7.—INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF, 1941-1942, AND ATTENDANCE IN 1939-1940 AND 1941-1942 IN NEGRO PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

State or District of Columbia	Total	INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF					AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE	
		Super-visors	Princi-pals	Total	Teachers Men	Women	1939-1940	1941-1942
Total	66,172	243	1,200	64,729	12,040	52,689	1,953,401	1,947,268
Alabama	5,873	46	49	5,778	931	4,847	196,640	195,749
Arkansas	2,629	1	22	2,606	590	2,016	89,082	85,903
Delaware	258	..	6	252	54	198	6,109	5,841
Florida	3,435	34	52	3,349	563	2,786	87,031	88,021
Georgia	6,895	23	33	6,839	889	5,950	202,580	205,061
Kentucky	1,476	..	108	1,368	281	1,081	35,417	33,359
Louisiana	4,313	38	..	4,275	764	3,511	144,392	144,593
Maryland	1,749	22	48	1,679	331	1,348	51,081	51,277
Mississippi	6,854	..	131	6,723	1,332	5,391	226,069	235,619
Missouri	1,537	1,537	374	1,163	39,206	39,617
North Carolina	7,433	..	286	7,147	1,230	5,917	230,224	228,230
Oklahoma	1,706	1,706	477	1,229	37,462	34,438
South Carolina	5,876	..	20	5,856	996	4,860	162,195	164,113
Tennessee	2,980	2,980	701	2,279	89,949	88,340
Texas	6,715	..	296	6,419	1,414	5,005	172,844	165,391
Virginia	4,237	64	104	4,069	613	3,456	125,767	124,153
West Virginia	1,032	(7)	(7)	1,032	303	729	26,114	25,417
District of Columbia..	1,174	15	45	1,114	197	917	31,239	32,146

6 Data for 1937-1938.

7 Included with teachers.

TABLE 8.—SOME EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 16 SOUTHERN STATES, NEGRO AND TOTAL: 1941-1942 ⁸

(Compiled by *The Negro Handbook* from data in the United States Office of Education)

State	Instruction	Maintenance	Health	Transportation
ALABAMA				
Negro	\$ 2,834,016	\$ 57,265	\$ 107,498
Total	16,603,274	598,633	\$ 12,192	2,101,516
ARKANSAS				
Negro	1,210,198	38,015	74,191
Total	9,143,324	302,276	1,270,066
DELAWARE				
Negro
Total	3,154,281	89,504	29,507	307,737
FLORIDA				
Negro	2,442,227	85,340	10,191	81,353
Total	16,569,523	738,946	87,966	1,466,176
GEORGIA				
Negro	3,242,469	87,336	1,571	51,582
Total	19,568,606	906,906	30,426	1,964,689
LOUISIANA				
Negro	2,498,518	133,652
Total	17,434,341	928,139	144,109	2,637,872
MARYLAND				
Negro	2,926,026	104,776	88,508	192,046
Total	16,420,690	671,282	455,295	1,439,911
MISSISSIPPI				
Negro	1,813,845	53,777	42,171
Total	9,705,084	503,981	2,527,058

TABLE 8.—SOME EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 18 SOUTHERN STATES, NEGRO AND TOTAL: 1941-1942 (Cont.)

	State	Instruction	Maintenance	Health	Transportation
MISSOURI					
Negro					
Total		33,630,174	1,918,053	1,000,752	2,037,242
NORTH CAROLINA					
Negro		6,622,026	187,251	303,304
Total		27,570,716	1,286,481	29,576	2,352,672
OKLAHOMA					
Negro		1,877,320	129,784	13,021	201,022
Total		22,097,745	1,527,680	153,265	2,366,213
SOUTH CAROLINA					
Negro		2,780,279	76,065	6,691
Total		13,080,589	482,079	1,228,917
TENNESSEE					
Negro					
Total		20,196,131	877,224	44,142	1,858,650
TEXAS					
Negro		5,305,787	227,316		
Total		56,348,891	2,278,715	493,595	6,805,886
VIRGINIA					
Negro					269,237
Total		19,642,329	843,557	172,459	2,261,715
WEST VIRGINIA					
Negro					
Total		21,021,008	1,184,331	95,530	1,652,314

* Where figures are not given, there was no way to tell from the data whether the expenditures were made, or whether made and not reported.

TABLE 9.—NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES: 1941-1942, NEGRO AND TOTAL, IN 17 STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

(Compiled from data in Office of Education)

State	Total	Negro
Alabama	16,314	2,230
Arkansas	12,870	943
Delaware	1,803	988
Florida	14,171	1,596
Georgia	22,516	2,337
Kentucky	16,415	934
Louisiana	16,729	1,894
Maryland	12,247	1,159
Mississippi	11,914	1,465
Missouri	29,500	1,149
North Carolina	31,533	4,983
Oklahoma	23,571	1,007
South Carolina	12,819	2,103
Tennessee	17,446	1,970
Texas	57,036	4,995
Virginia	20,468	3,323
West Virginia	16,825	856
District of Columbia.....	4,030	752

* Estimated.

TABLE 10.—ENROLLMENT OF WHITE AND NEGRO PUPILS PER MEMBER OF INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF¹⁰ IN 17 SOUTHERN STATES AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, FOR SPECIFIED YEARS

State or District of Columbia	White				Negro			
	1929-1930	1937-1938	1939-1940	1941-1942	1929-1930	1937-1938	1939-1940	1941-1942
Total	34.5	29.7	29.2	28.6	44.4	39.7	37.7	36.1
Alabama	33.2	31.8	31.5	30.6	46.1	42.2	42.0	40.0
Arkansas	33.1	34.0	33.7	32.7	43.9	45.0	44.0	41.2
Delaware	29.3	26.1	25.6	25.0	33.2	29.9	28.8	27.0
Florida	29.4	27.6	25.7	25.7	39.8	32.5	31.1	30.0
Georgia	34.1	28.9	29.0	29.4	46.0	39.9	38.8	37.8
Kentucky	38.7	33.0	30.3	30.6	34.9	30.4	27.2	27.7
Louisiana	30.4	28.7	27.6	26.8	51.8	43.0	41.9	40.2
Maryland	31.1	32.3	31.0	31.0	34.6	35.0	34.8	34.2
Mississippi	32.9	29.0	31.3	29.4	49.4	48.7	45.7	42.4
Missouri	27.0	26.9	26.2	27.2	28.7	32.5	32.5	33.3
North Carolina	34.7	34.0	33.2	32.0	44.1	38.4	37.3	36.0
Oklahoma	34.6	31.4	29.8	26.8	33.2	28.5	27.9	23.8
South Carolina	27.9	28.9	27.9	27.4	49.0	42.1	38.1	36.2
Tennessee	31.9	27.3	31.3	29.3	51.1	36.7	37.2	35.8
Texas	36.2	27.5	26.7	26.6	39.6	35.8	34.4	32.2
Virginia	32.3	33.7	29.2	29.5	40.0	36.8	35.3	34.9
West Virginia	(11)	26.8	28.1	27.5	(11)	28.9	27.3	27.4
District of Columbia.....	29.2	30.4	27.7	27.5	31.0	34.8	34.0	32.1

¹⁰ Supervisors, principals, and teachers.

¹¹ Data not available.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE POPULATION: 1940

Source: Bureau of the Census

EDITOR'S NOTE: Statistics on the years of schooling completed by persons 25 years old and over replace the less comprehensive statistics on illiteracy compiled in previous censuses.

The 1940 census statistics on years of schooling completed represent the first complete inventory of the educational status of the entire population ever undertaken. The statistics made available relate only to persons twenty-five years old and over (table 11), those who may generally be considered as having completed their formal education. The question on highest grade of school completed was included in the 1940 census in place of the less comprehensive questions on illiteracy asked in previous censuses.

More than half of the persons twenty-five years old or over in the United States had completed at least eight years of school by April 1, 1940. The proportion who had never completed as much as one year of formal schooling was 3.7 percent, but, at the other extreme, 4.6 percent had finished college.

Urban residents, with a median of

8.7 years of school completed, had a higher average formal educational attainment than inhabitants of rural-nonfarm areas (8.4 years), and these in turn had received somewhat more schooling than persons living on rural farms (7.7 years).

Urban-Rural Differences

The median number of school years completed was 8.7 for the urban population, 8.4 for the rural-nonfarm population, and 7.7 for the rural-farm population. These three residence groups ranked in this same order for each of the race-nativity groups, but differences were very small among the foreign-born whites.

If the educational level of the three residence groups is measured by computing for each the proportion who have never completed as much as one full school year, the results are similar. For native whites, Negroes and other

TABLE 11.—PERSONS 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED,

Area and Years of School Completed	All Classes			Native White		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
UNITED STATES						
Persons 25 years old and over.....	74,775,836	37,463,087	37,312,749	57,038,335	28,326,535	28,711,800
No school years completed.....	2,799,923	1,471,290	1,328,633	764,384	431,671	332,713
Grade school: 1 to 4 years	7,304,689	4,079,100	3,225,589	3,457,673	1,979,135	1,478,538
5 and 6 years	8,515,111	4,399,910	4,115,201	5,513,101	2,891,352	2,621,749
7 and 8 years	25,897,953	13,239,380	12,658,573	20,558,596	10,540,144	10,018,452
High school: 1 to 3 years	11,181,995	5,332,803	5,849,192	9,842,214	4,699,997	5,142,217
4 years	10,551,680	4,507,244	6,044,436	9,447,826	3,980,761	5,467,065
College: 1 to 3 years	4,075,184	1,823,981	2,251,203	3,737,470	1,644,584	2,092,886
4 years or more	3,407,331	2,021,228	1,386,103	3,067,783	1,788,670	1,279,113
Not reported	1,041,970	588,151	453,819	649,288	370,221	279,067
Median school years completed.....	8.4	8.3	8.5	8.8	8.6	9.0
Percent less than 5 years completed..	13.5	14.8	12.2	7.4	8.5	6.3
PERCENT DISTRIBUTION						
UNITED STATES						
Persons 25 years old and over.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No school years completed.....	3.7	3.9	3.6	1.3	1.5	1.2
Grade school: 1 to 4 years	9.8	10.9	8.6	6.1	7.0	5.1
5 and 6 years	11.4	11.7	11.0	9.7	10.2	9.1
7 and 8 years	34.6	35.3	33.9	36.0	37.2	34.9
High school: 1 to 3 years	15.0	14.2	15.7	17.3	16.6	17.9
4 years	14.1	12.0	16.2	16.6	14.1	19.0
College: 1 to 3 years	5.4	4.9	6.0	6.6	5.8	7.3
4 years or more	4.6	5.4	3.7	5.4	6.3	4.5
Not reported	1.4	1.6	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.0

nonwhite races, the percentage having no years of school completed is highest for the rural-farm population and lowest for urban residents. For foreign-born whites, however, the relationship is reversed.

The median number of years of school completed for each of the race-nativity groups was: native white 8.8, foreign-born white 7.3, Negro 5.7, and other races 6.8. It is probable that educational attainment varied widely among the different races making up the "other races" group, such as Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos.

On the basis of the data given in the following table, it would seem that although a larger proportion of men than of women drop out of school before completing high school, a greater proportion of men than of women who graduate from high school go on to college, and a greater proportion of men than of women who enter college complete their college training.

Geographic Divisions

The Pacific Division had the highest median number of school years completed (9.7 years) as well as the highest proportion of college graduates and the lowest proportion of persons who had completed less than five years of school. The East South Central Division had the lowest median school attainment (7.5 years), the lowest percentage of college graduates, and the highest percentage of persons with less than five years of school completed.

Native whites comprised 85.9 percent of the total population in the Pacific and other western areas, as compared with 83.9 percent for the North and 74.5 percent for the South. The relatively low level of formal educational attainment in the South is partly attributable to its high proportion of Negroes and of rural residents.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Statistics on regions and states have not yet been broken down into racial groups from the 1940 census.

RACE, AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES, URBAN AND RURAL: 1940

Foreign-Born White			Negro			Other Races		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
10,961,188	5,787,437	5,173,751	6,491,399	3,161,945	3,329,454	284,914	187,170	97,744
1,335,611	655,217	680,394	646,229	352,940	293,289	53,699	31,462	22,237
1,764,446	968,683	795,763	2,033,957	1,097,140	936,817	48,613	34,142	14,471
1,569,134	833,762	735,372	1,393,053	648,342	744,711	39,823	26,454	13,369
3,988,297	2,079,035	1,909,262	1,286,656	577,975	708,681	64,404	42,226	22,178
761,378	389,659	371,719	549,666	224,084	325,582	28,737	19,063	9,674
807,507	400,625	406,882	268,481	108,120	160,361	27,866	17,738	10,128
211,211	125,230	85,981	118,280	48,150	70,130	8,223	6,017	2,206
252,002	186,625	65,377	80,842	40,678	40,164	6,704	5,255	1,449
271,602	148,601	123,001	114,235	64,516	49,719	6,845	4,813	2,032
7.3	7.3	7.3	5.7	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.9	6.7
28.3	28.1	28.5	41.3	45.9	36.9	35.9	35.1	37.6
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
12.2	11.3	13.2	10.0	11.2	8.8	18.8	16.8	22.8
16.1	16.7	15.4	31.3	34.7	28.1	17.1	18.2	14.8
14.3	14.4	14.2	21.5	20.5	22.4	14.0	14.1	13.7
36.4	35.9	36.9	19.8	18.3	21.3	22.6	22.6	22.7
6.9	6.7	7.2	8.5	7.1	9.8	10.1	10.2	9.9
7.4	6.9	7.9	4.1	3.4	4.8	9.8	9.5	10.4
1.9	2.2	1.7	1.8	1.5	2.1	2.9	3.2	2.3
2.3	3.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.2	2.4	2.8	1.5
2.5	2.6	2.4	1.8	2.0	1.5	2.4	2.6	2.1

INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: 1944-1945

(Student enrollments are in another Table)

Source: Educational Directory of the United States Office of Education and unpublished data
**PUBLICLY CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND
 PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS**

(See Key to Abbreviations and Symbols at end of list)

School and President	Total Income	Total Expendi- tures	Plant and Plant Funds
ALABAMA			
State Agricultural and Mechanical Institute (JS), Normal; J. F. Drake.....	\$ 123,848	\$ 125,410	\$ 839,164
ARKANSAS			
Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College, Pine Bluff; Lawrence A. Davis.....	205,644	202,404	890,521
DELAWARE			
State College for Colored Students, Dover; Howard D. Gregg	103,721	107,937	\$49,031
FLORIDA			
Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College (S), Tallahassee; W. H. Gray, Jr.	349,223	260,110	1,531,671
GEORGIA			
Georgia State College (TS), Industrial College; B. F. Hubert	108,832	103,699	886,672
Albany State College; Aaron Brown.....	60,861	60,649	420,314
KENTUCKY			
Kentucky State (S), Frankfort; R. B. Atwood.....	163,919	160,798	1,073,545
Louisville Municipal College (S, C), Dean Batran W. Dayle	35,436	41,891	187,448
LOUISIANA			
Southern University and Agricultural and Mechan- ical College (S), Scottlandville; Felton G. Clark.. Louisiana Normal and Industrial School, Grambling; R. W. E. Jones.....	413,119	346,161	1,583,903
	84,610	77,153
MARYLAND			
Morgan State College (M), Baltimore; Dwight O. W. Holmes	186,964	189,775	1,346,639
Princess Anne College, Princess Anne; R. A. Grigsby (acting dean)	53,172	46,932	501,551
MISSISSIPPI			
Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College (TS), Alcorn; William H. Piper.....	148,803	135,911	692,143

**PUBLICLY CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS (Cont.)**

School and President	Total Income	Total Expendi- tures	Plant and Plant Funds
MISSOURI			
Lincoln University (N), Jefferson City; Sherman D. Scruggs	408,240	382,063
NORTH CAROLINA			
Agricultural and Technical College (S), Greensboro; Ferdinand D. Bluford	348,760	390,054
North Carolina College for Negroes (A, S), Durham; James E. Shepard
OKLAHOMA			
Langston University, Langston; G. L. Harrison....	220,781	222,932	1,168,434
SOUTH CAROLINA			
State Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College (S), Orangeburg; M. F. Whitaker	246,185	219,774	1,349,000
TEXAS			
Houston College for Negroes (C), Houston; E. F. Oberholtzer	55,852	30,284
Prairie View State College (S), Prairie View; R. Banks	353,131	308,010	1,963,646
VIRGINIA			
Virginia State College for Negroes (S), Ettrick; Luther H. Foster	563,921	404,863	2,631,950
West Virginia State College (N), Institute; John W. Davis	374,626	258,805	2,033,294

**PRIVATELY CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS**

School and President	Total Income	Total Expendi- tures	Plant and Plant Funds
ALABAMA			
Miles College (CME), Birmingham; W. A. Bell....	\$ 36,707	\$ 33,641	\$ 226,500
Tuskegee Institute (S), Tuskegee Institute; F. D. Patterson	1,259,853	1,198,778	4,828,735
Talladega College (A, S, AMA), Talladega; Adam Daniel Beittel	134,158	135,452	1,659,650
ARKANSAS			
Arkansas Baptist College (Bapt.), Little Rock; T. W. Coggs
Philander Smith College (Meth.), Little Rock; M. LaFayette Harris	71,486	69,595	130,122
Shorter-Flipper-Curry College (AME), North Little Rock; L. C. Fisher	53,484	29,256	287,659
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA			
Howard University (A, M, national and private), Washington; Mordecai W. Johnson.....	1,693,779	1,691,794	7,815,970
Robert H. Terrell Law School (professional), Washington; Judge Armond W. Scott.....
GEORGIA			
Atlanta University (S), Atlanta; Rufus E. Clement	217,641	191,664	2,053,169
Atlanta University School of Social Work (AP), Atlanta; Forrester B. Washington, Director....	30,005	30,402
Gammon Theological Seminary (AP, Meth.), Professional; John W. Haywood.....	38,962	40,841
Morehouse College (S, Bapt., men), Atlanta; Benjamin E. Mays	115,362	85,189	333,635
Morris Brown College (S, AME), Atlanta; William A. Fountain, Jr.	99,933	83,763	118,409
Clark College (S, Meth.), Atlanta; James P. Brawley	100,129	73,331	818,194
Spelman College (S, Bapt., women), Atlanta; Florence M. Read	204,547	175,082	909,044
Paine College (†S, Meth. and CME), Augusta; Edmund C. Peters	57,758	47,338	484,382
LOUISIANA			
Dillard University (S), New Orleans; Albert W. Dent	146,017	139,321
Xavier University (S, RC), New Orleans; Mother M. Agatha	221,341	212,846	1,185,143
Leland College (Bapt.), Baker; J. M. Frazier....

**PRIVATELY CONTROLLED UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS (Cont.)**

School and President	Total Income	Total Expendi- tures	Plant and Plant Funds
MISSISSIPPI			
Jackson College (Bapt.), Jackson; Jacob L. Reddix	74,941	77,474
Mississippi Industrial College (CME), Holly Springs; W. M. Frazier
Rust College (Meth.), Holly Springs; L. M. McCoy
Tougaloo College (†S, AMA), Tougaloo; Judson L. Cross	75,785	71,047	543,080
NORTH CAROLINA			
Barber-Scotia College (S, Presb., women), Concord; L. S. Cozart	42,617	51,058	368,900
Johnson C. Smith (S, Presb.), Charlotte; Henry L. McCrorey
Livingstone College (†S, AMEZ), Salisbury; W. J. Trent, Sr.	79,064	75,879	490,000
St. Augustine College (S, PE), Raleigh; Edgar H. Gould	73,682	72,454
Bennett College (S, Meth., women), Greensboro; David D. Jones	122,151	124,913	1,398,112
Shaw University (S, Bapt.), Raleigh; Robert P. Daniel	112,751	96,906	672,173
OHIO			
Wilberforce University (N, AME), Wilberforce; C. H. Wesley	504,734	529,370	2,021,139
PENNSYLVANIA			
Lincoln University (M, P, men), Lincoln Univer- sity; Horace Mann Bond	141,010	132,178	784,896
SOUTH CAROLINA			
Allen University (AME), Columbia; Samuel R. Higgins	63,911	47,820	558,645
Claffin College (Meth.), Orangeburg; J. B. Randolph	56,695	43,701
Benedict College (†Bapt.), Columbia; J. A. Bacoats	41,844	54,902	486,981
Morris College (Bapt.), Sumter; J. P. Garrick, acting	35,700	36,975
TENNESSEE			
Lane College (†S, CME), Jackson; D. H. Yarbrough	57,187	46,967	402,500
Fisk University (A, S), Nashville; Thomas E. Jones	334,935	337,238	1,640,348
LeMoyne College (S, AMA), Memphis; Hollis F. Price	81,119	73,230	350,000
Meharry Medical College (AP, professional), Nash- ville; Edward L. Turner	444,327	446,423	2,191,000
Knoxville College (†S, U. Presb.), Knoxville; Wil- liam L. Imes
TEXAS			
Butler College (Bapt.), Tyler; I. Jackson, Jr.
Texas College (†S, CME), Tyler; Dominion R. Glass	82,430	56,819	355,585
Wiley College (S, CME), Marshall; E. C. McLeod	88,592	85,338	427,525
Bishop College (†S, Bapt.), Marshall; Joseph J. Rhoads	64,619	54,796	429,068
Jarvis Christian College (Disc.), Hawkins; P. C. Washington	50,637	35,452
Samuel Houston College (†S, Meth.), Austin; Karl E. Downs	54,731	52,479	298,328
Tillotson College (S), Austin; William H. Jones	89,407	85,113
Paul Quinn College (AME), Waco	(closed)
VIRGINIA			
Bishop Payne Divinity School (PE, men, profes- sional), Petersburg; Robert A. Goodwin, Dean	21,950	17,136
Hampton Institute (S), Hampton; Ralph P. Bridg- man	1,301,639	1,049,664	3,995,529
Virginia Theological Seminary and College (Bapt.), Lynchburg; W. H. R. Powell
Virginia Union University (S, Bapt.), Richmond; J. M. Ellison	106,635	117,062
St. Paul's Polytechnic Institute (P, E), Lawrence- ville; J. Alvin Russell
WEST VIRGINIA			
Storer College (private and state), Harpers Ferry; Richard I. McKinney	29,412	35,451	239,467

THE NEGRO HANDBOOK

TEACHERS' COLLEGES, FOUR-YEAR

School and President	Total Income	Total Expendi- tures	Plant and Plant Funds
ALABAMA			
State Teachers' College (†S, St), Montgomery; H. Council Trenholm	\$244,533	\$149,648	\$1,009,009
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA			
Miner Teachers' College (T, C), Washington; Eu- gene A. Clark	214,844	211,860	585,000
GEORGIA			
Fort Valley State College (†S, St), Fort Valley; Cornelius V. Troup	136,417	150,521	528,869
MARYLAND			
Maryland State Teachers' College (St), Bowie; William E. Henry	72,159	68,372	552,892
Coppin Teachers' College (C), Baltimore; Miles W. Conner	28,342	28,096
MISSOURI			
Stowe Teachers' College and Junior College (T, C), St. Louis; Ruth Miriam Harris.....	94,656	94,516	589,621
NORTH CAROLINA			
Fayetteville State Teachers' College (†S), Fayette- ville; J. W. Seabrook.....	77,901	95,829	799,164
State Teachers' College (†S), Elizabeth City; Har- old L. Trigg	45,060	65,137	803,300
Winston-Salem Teachers' College (†S, St), Winston- Salem; F. L. Atkins.....	82,629	107,512
PENNSYLVANIA			
Cheyney Training School (T, St), Cheyney; Leslie Pinckney Hill	105,566	104,556
TENNESSEE			
Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State Teach- ers' College (T, S), Nashville; Walter S. Davis..	263,195	152,074
WEST VIRGINIA			
Bluefield State Teachers' College (St), Bluefield; H. L. Dickason	122,000	70,000	490,000

JUNIOR COLLEGES AND TWO-YEAR NORMAL SCHOOLS

ALABAMA		NORTH CAROLINA	
Oakwood College (†S, SDA), Huntsville; J. L. Moran		Immanuel Lutheran College (E. Luth.), Greensboro; Henry Nau	
Stillman Institute (†S, Presb.), Tuscaloosa; A. L. Jackson		SOUTH CAROLINA	
ARKANSAS		Avery Institute (Cong.), 2-year Normal, Charleston; L. Howard Bennett, Dir.	
Dunbar Junior College (C), Little Rock; John H. Lewis		Bettis Academy (Bapt.), Trenton; A. W. Nicholson	
FLORIDA		Clinton Normal and Industrial College (AMEZ), 2-year Normal, Rock Hill; James W. Shaw	
Bethune-Cookman College (†JS), Daytona Beach; James A. Colston		Coulter Memorial Academy (Presb.), Che- raw; H. L. Mars	
Edward Waters College (AME), Jackson- ville; Amos J. White		Friendship College (Bapt.), Rock Hill; J. H. Goudlock	
Florida Normal and Industrial Institute, (†S, P), St. Augustine; John L. Tilley		Voorhees Normal and Industrial Institute (†S, PE), Denmark; J. E. Blanton	
MISSISSIPPI		TENNESSEE	
Okolona Industrial School (P, E), Okolona; W. Milan Davis		Morristown Normal and Industrial College (Meth.), Morristown	
Southern Christian Institute (Disc.), Ed- wards; John Long		Swift Memorial Junior College (Presb.), Rogersville; R. E. Lee	
MISSOURI		TEXAS	
Lincoln Junior College (C), Kansas City; G. T. Bryant, Dean		St. Philip Junior College and Vocational Institute (C), San Antonio; Miss A. Bowden	

KEY TO ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

†—Accredited as Class B School.
 AP—Accredited by Professional Association.
 A—Accredited by North Central Association of Colleges.
 AMA—Controlled by American Missionary Association (Cong.).
 AME—Controlled by African Methodist Episcopal Church.
 AMEZ—Controlled by African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church.
 Bapt.—Controlled by Baptist Church.
 C—Controlled by city or municipal government.
 CME—Controlled by Colored Methodist Episcopal Church.
 Cong.—Controlled by Congregational Church.
 Disc.—Controlled by Disciples of Christ Church.
 E. Luth.—Controlled by Evangelical Lutheran Church.
 JS—Four-year college accredited by regional association as junior college.

M—Accredited by Middle States Association of Colleges.
 Meth.—Controlled by Methodist Church.
 N—Accredited by North Central Association of Colleges.
 P—Controlled by private corporation independent of church.
 PE—Controlled by Protestant Episcopal Church.
 Presb.—Controlled by Presbyterian Church.
 RC—Controlled by Roman Catholic Church.
 S—Accredited by Southern Association of Colleges.
 SDA—Controlled by Seventh-Day Adventist Church.
 St.—State controlled.
 T—Accredited by American Association of Teachers' Colleges.
 U. Presb.—Controlled by United Presbyterian Church.

UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN NEGRO COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, FALL 1945-1946; BACHELORS DEGREES CONFERRED, 1944-1945¹²

Institution	Enrollment of Resident Undergraduate College Students			Undergraduate Regular Session		Graduates (A.B., B.S.)
	Fall 1945-1946			Fall 1944-1945	1944-1945	
	(1) Total	(2) Male	(3) Female	(4) Total	(5) Total	(6) Total
ALABAMA						
Alabama State A. & M. Institute v....	373	54	319	347	641	56
Alabama State Teachers College v....	673	77	596	509	2,246	162
Miles Memorial College	242	28	214	197	444	26
Oakwood College	214	51	163	151	186	9
Daniel Payne College	57	20	37	60	"	9
Selma University	84	16	68	38	172	3
Stillman Institute	165 *	12	131	..	47	..
Talladega College	258	37	221	244	243	37
Tuskegee Institute	1,441	491	950	1,163	1,870	151
ARKANSAS						
Arkansas A. M. & N. College v.....	404	121	283	312	1,777	31
Arkansas Baptist College	70	12	58	"	63	9
Dunbar Jr. College v.....	98	13	85	80	121 *	..
Philander Smith College	314	63	251	"	591	48
Shorter-Flipper-Curry College	30	6	24	36	51	2
DELAWARE						
State College for Colored Students v... 147 *	147 *	45	120	104	132	28
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA						
Howard University	2,170 *	645	1,526	2,740	3,406	167
Miner Teachers College v.....	402	14	388	356	640	66
FLORIDA						
Bethune-Cookman College	241	41	200	246	576	32
Edward Waters College
Florida A. & M. College v.....	1,113	223	890	835	1,835 *	183
Florida N. & I. Institute.....	296	50	246	302	307	21
GEORGIA						
Clark College	688	133	555	593	626	52
Fort Valley State College v.....	374	53	321	359	1,018	105
Georgia Baptist College	46	6	40	..	35	..
Albany State College v.....	307	33	274	209	1,086	26
Georgia State College v.....	498	110	388	397	1,765	76
Morehouse College	418	418	..	340	1,238	19
Morris Brown College	532	149	383	539	594	46
Paine College	296	40	256	274	505	17
Spelman College	471	..	471	452	471	65

¹² Compiled by Dr. Martin D. Jenkins, Department of Education, Howard University, and published in the *Journal of Negro Education*, Howard University.

**UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN NEGRO COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES,
FALL 1945-1946; BACHELORS DEGREES CONFERRED, 1944-1945 (Cont.)**

Institution	Enrollment of Resident Undergraduate College Students			Undergraduate Regular Session		Graduates (A.B., B.S.)
	Fall 1945-1946			Fall 1944-1945	1944-1945	
	(1) Total	(2) Male	(3) Female	(4) Total	(5) Total	(6) Total
KANSAS						
Kansas City Jr. College v.....	91	13	78	89	89	..
KENTUCKY						
Kentucky State College v.....	427	125	302	310	462	54
Louisville Municipal College v.....	204	31	173	173	227	21
LOUISIANA						
Dillard University	413	63	350	260	287	30
Leland College	297	47	250	267	445	90
Louisiana Negro Normal v.....	322	39	283	233	506	85
Southern University	1,041	322	719	863	1,337	102
Xavier University	591	151	440	542	662	66
MARYLAND						
Coppin Normal v.....	125	1	124	134	134	36
Maryland State Teachers College v....	119	14	105	109	111	22
Morgan College v.....	932	175	757	547	630	84
Princess Anne College v.....	102	29	73	49	..	5
MISSISSIPPI						
Alcorn A. & M. College v.....	256	43	213	181	475	32
Campbell College
Mississippi Industrial College
Jackson College for Teachers v.....	237	26	211	237	1,539	39
Natchez College	7	2	5	..	7	..
Okolona Industrial School	30	1	29	28	143	..
Piney Woods School	8	1	7	9	8	..
Rust College	134	19	115	128	502	19
Southern Christian Institute	31	13	18	86	149	..
Tougaloo College	195	28	167	166	219	16
MISSOURI						
Lincoln Jr. College v.....	121	27	94	86	101	..
Lincoln University v.....	628	172	456	493	882	60
Stowe Teachers' College v.....	417	25	392	358	406	35
Western College	24	7	17	..	30	..
NORTH CAROLINA						
Agricultural & Technical College v....	1,090	540	550	899	486	99
Barber-Scotia College	148	..	148	142	144	17
Bennett College	414	..	414	418	456	84
Elizabeth City Teachers College v.....	516	25	491	423	783	115
Fayetteville State Teachers College v....	547	50	497	542	878	120
Immanuel Lutheran College	28	8	20	20	20	..
Johnson C. Smith University	564	188	376	430	699	86
Kittrell College	51	14	37	15	51	5
Livingston College	401	86	315	374	511	45
N. C. College for Negroes v.....	740	173	567	649	1,235	91
Shaw University	657	95	562	514	597	78
St. Augustine's College	276	49	227	214	224	29
Winston-Salem Teachers College v.....	587	83	504	594	936	147
OHIO						
Wilberforce University	1,018	257	761	841	895	110
OKLAHOMA						
C. A. & N. University v.....	434	125	309	358	471	99
PENNSYLVANIA						
Cheyney State Teachers College v.....	164	14	150	136	148	39
Lincoln University	199	199	..	116	116	15
SOUTH CAROLINA						
A. & M. College v.....	924	228	696	781	1,895	13
Allen University	465	106	359	415	1,237	88
Benedict College	484	92	392	403	1,022	79
Bettis Jr. College	65	3	62
Claffin College	254	19	235	211	206	24
Clinton N. & I. College.....	26	5	21	30
Coulter Jr. College
Friendship Jr. College	106	9	97	190	318	..
Morris College	600	80	520	390	1,327	54
Voorhees N. & I. College.....	82	15	67	99	105	..

**UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN NEGRO COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES,
FALL 1945-1946; BACHELORS DEGREES CONFERRED, 1944-1945 (Cont.)**

Institution	Enrollment of Resident Undergraduate College Students			Undergraduate Regular Session		Graduates (A.B., B.S.)
	Fall 1945-1946			Fall 1944-1945	1945	
	(1) Total	(2) Male	(3) Female	(4) Total	(5) Total	(6) Total
TENNESSEE						
Fisk University	692	159	533	624	693	70
Knoxville College	262	73	189	169	217	26
Lane College	312	60	252	375	524	35
LeMoyne College	261	42	219	245	406	38
Morristown N. & I. College	81	12	69	71	85	..
Swift Memorial Jr. College	36	6	30	29	29	..
Tennessee A. & I. State College v.....	1,375	329	1,046	1,004	1,782	159
TEXAS						
Bishop College	431	104	327	..	1,173	44
Butler College	201	43	158	158	322	9
Conroe N. & I. Institute	10	2	8	12
Houston College for Negroes v.....	"	"	"	..	777	50
Jarvis Christian Institute	154	19	135	128	187	23
Mary Allen Jr. College	116	15	101	..	101	..
Paul Quinn College	179	23	146	..	54	16
Prairie View State College v.....	1,388	381	1,007	1,243	1,955	114
Samuel Huston College	265	76	189	233	647	65
St. Phillips Jr. College	85	25	60	23	85	..
Texas College	610	162	448	519	1,208	130
Tillotson College	502	62	440	502	531	71
Wiley College	474	118	356	396	859	65
VIRGINIA						
Hampton Institute	977	374	603	830	1,859	146
St. Paul's Polytechnic Institute	293	23	270	255	264	21
Virginia State College for Negroes v*..	1,003	226	777	1,019	2,594	181
Virginia Theol. Seminary & College ..	"
Virginia Union University	700	181	519	573	1,026	100
WEST VIRGINIA						
Bluefield State Teachers College v.....	345	66	279	246	561	59
Storer College	115	14	101	67	87	8
West Virginia State College v.....	860	208	652	701	1,135	104
Totals	41,741	9,601	32,127	34,857	65,958	5,213

v Public.

* Error in report.

" Not reported.

* Includes Norfolk Division, Virginia State College.

EDUCATIONAL AND WELFARE FOUNDATIONS

JULIUS ROSENWALD FUND

The Julius Rosenwald Fund, founded in 1917, has directed its chief efforts toward the improvement of education, especially in the South, the development of enlarged opportunities for Negroes, and the betterment of race relations.

During the two-year period ending June 30, 1944, the fund expended \$1,615,513 on its programs. Of this amount, \$336,471 was spent on rural education, \$185,417 on fellowships, \$226,169 on race relations, \$646,948 on

Negro universities, and \$94,464 on Negro health.

Its chief activities during this two-year period were (1) education of teachers for work in the rural schools of the South, both Negro and white; (2) endowment of Dillard University in New Orleans; (3) fellowships for exceptionally promising Negroes and white Southerners; (4) efforts to improve race relations.

A division of race relations was set up in July, 1942. The fund's activities in this field included contributions to

the following organizations: American Council on Race Relations, Southern Regional Council, National Council of Negro Women, National Urban League, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Associated Negro Press, and the National Committee on Housing.

During the two-year period the fund distributed more than 100,000 books and pamphlets to agencies and individuals throughout the country, and granted 74 fellowship awards, of which 43 went to Negroes and the others to white Southerners.

Offices of the organization are at 4901 Ellis Avenue, Chicago; its president is Edwin R. Embree and its secretary is Dorothy A. Elvidge.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD

The General Education Board was endowed by John D. Rockefeller in 1902 to promote education within the United States, "without discrimination of race, sex or creed."

Concerning its activities, the president states in the 1944 annual report:

In the annual report of the General Education Board for 1936-1937 reference was made to its rapidly diminishing capital and to its possible liquidation within the next few years. In 1940, when the capital fund had been greatly reduced, the board's programs in general education and in child growth and development were brought to an end and it was decided to use the remaining funds chiefly in aid of education in the southern states.

Since that time improved market conditions have considerably increased the value of the board's securities and it now seems probable that it will be perhaps three or four years before the present funds are exhausted.

Of a total of \$3,073,976 expended by the board during 1944, \$1,950,205 was

spent on the education and welfare of Negroes. In 1935 \$1,500,000 was granted as a conditional appropriation for Fisk University in Nashville, Tenn., toward \$3,000,000 of endowment. This fund is available until 1948. Pending the successful outcome of the university's efforts to raise the stipulated supplemental sum, the board has made annual grants toward its current budget. In 1944 the board provided \$38,000 to be used primarily for teaching and research during 1944-1945.

Since 1916 the board has been contributing toward the current operation of Meharry Medical College in Nashville. A sum of \$150,000 for endowment was voted in 1921. In 1940 it made a conditional appropriation for endowment of \$3,700,000 toward a sum of \$5,400,000; and in 1944 the board increased the pledge to \$4,000,000, removed the conditions, making the appropriation outright, and appropriated an additional \$300,000 to serve as a contingent fund for the current expenses of the college.

Over a period of years the General Education Board has assisted in the development of the Atlanta University center. In 1944 it made further grants for endowment to two of the Negro schools in the Atlanta University group; \$200,000 to Morris Brown College, and \$50,000 to Clark College. It also appropriated \$15,000 for Morehouse College for needed repairs and improvements to buildings.

Exclusive of the schools named above, the board expended funds on other universities, colleges, and secondary schools for Negroes, and for health and library improvements, art, and education missions to Africa.

A grant of \$14,500 was made in 1944 to the New York Public Library, \$2500 of which was earmarked for the Schomburg Collection of Negro Literature, and \$9500 for the continued operation of the American Negro Theatre, an amateur group in New York City, founded and directed by Abram Hill.

Offices of the board are located at 49 West 49th Street, in Rockefeller Center, New York. Raymond B. Fosdick is president.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK

The Carnegie Corporation of New York was established by Andrew Carnegie in 1911 for "the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding among the people of the United States and the British Dominions and colonies." The program of the corporation includes the support of educational and scientific research, publications, and professional and scholarly societies and associations, fine arts, library service, and educational institutions.

Negroes are benefited by many of the corporation's grants for specific purposes, but in some instances grants are made to all-Negro organizations. In its 1945 report, the following grants were given to specific Negro projects: \$25,000 to the United Negro College Fund; \$5000 to the National Urban League; and \$25,000 to the Boy Scouts of America for provision of camping facilities for Negro scouts in the southeastern states on a co-operative basis with local communities.

Offices of the corporation are at 522 Fifth Avenue, New York, and its president is Devereux C. Josephs.

PHELPS-STOKES FUND

The Phelps-Stokes Fund was incorporated in 1911 in accordance with the will of Miss Caroline Phelps Stokes, "for the improvement of tenement houses in the City of New York for the poor families of that city and for the education of Negroes both in Africa and the United States, and of North American Indians, and of needy and deserving white students."

Of the total of \$45,479 expended for the year ending October 13, 1945, \$28,516 was spent on Negroes in the United States and Africa; and \$16,963 in the interest of housing in New York City,

North American Indians, and administration expenses.

The sum expended on Negroes included the following items:

Negro educational institutions and students, \$2848; interracial work, \$3340; African educational work, including Liberia and South Africa, \$5207; preparation and publication of books, \$1292; field services of staff in interest of Negro education in the United States and Africa, \$15,820.

Offices of the fund are at 101 Park Avenue, New York City, and the president is the Rev. Anson Phelps Stokes.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

The Russell Sage Foundation was founded by Mrs. Russell Sage in 1907 as a memorial to her husband. Its purpose is the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. It uses any means to that end which from time to time may seem to its trustees desirable.

Its general aim is to study and analyze the causes of adverse social and living conditions and to make available such information as will assist others to relieve, remedy, or prevent similar conditions. Its services are extended without regard to race and it is often impossible to determine to what extent Negroes benefit by them.

Now and then grants are made annually to organizations specifically serving the interests of Negroes. One of these goes to a training school for social workers, another to a national social work agency endeavoring to improve race relations, and another to a national organization working to improve conditions among Negroes in city districts throughout the country. The total of these three grants during the last two years has amounted to about \$10,000 annually.

MILBANK MEMORIAL FUND

The Milbank Memorial Fund was established in 1908 by Mts. Elizabeth Milbank Anderson to "improve the physical, mental and moral conditions

of humanity, and generally to advance charitable and benevolent objects." The fund assists private agencies in the field of public health and medicine, education, social welfare, and research.

During 1944 and 1945 grants were made to the following Negro institutions: Dillard University, \$11,100; Tuskegee Institute, for the study of untreated syphilis, \$750; and the United Negro College Fund, \$5000.

Offices of the fund are at 40 Wall Street, New York; and the president is Albert G. Milbank.

PERMANENT CHARITY FUND

The Committee of the Permanent Charity Fund was established in 1915 by the Boston Safe Deposit and Trust Company by the execution of an agreement and declaration of trust under the terms of which the trust company agreed to act as trustee of the fund. The plan was designed to meet the difficulties of persons who desire to make gifts to charity or leave money in trust for charitable purposes, but who are in doubt as to the proper means of doing this effectively.

During 1944 and 1945 the fund appropriated the following amounts for charitable work for specifically Negro institutions: Cambridge Community Center, \$1750; Resthaven Corporation, \$1500; Robert Gould Shaw House, \$3000; St. Monica's Home, \$1000; Urban League of Greater Boston, \$2800; and St. Mark Social Center, \$1500. All of these institutions are in Boston.

Offices of the fund are at 100 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass., and the president is Roger Preston.

W. K. KELLOGG FOUNDATION

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation, founded in 1921 by W. K. Kellogg at Battle Creek, Mich., receives and administers funds "for the promotion of health, education and the welfare of mankind, but principally of children and youth, directly or indirectly, without regard to sex, race, creed or na-

tionality, in whatever manner the board of trustees may decide."

The foundation spends millions of dollars annually to carry out its aims. It is difficult to state to what exact extent Negroes benefit from its expenditures, for the funds are spent on municipal, county, state, and national health projects, in many of which Negroes are included.

The only grants that were made specifically for Negroes during the 1944-1945 period were \$4325 to the Department of Public Instruction in Georgia and \$3200 to the similar department in North Carolina. These grants were for the development of a course in community health service, and Negro personnel was employed to conduct the program among Negro school children.

Grants were also made for health programs in Marshall and Bedford Counties in Tennessee in which many Negroes live. During this period four fellowships were awarded to Negro students; one in health education, one in orthopedic surgery, and two in dentistry.

Offices of the fund are at Battle Creek, Mich., and the president is Emory W. Morris.

JUILLIARD MUSICAL FOUNDATION

The Juilliard Musical Foundation was established in 1920 by Augustus D. Juilliard for the purpose of extending musical education and recreation in the United States. The capital has been held at about \$12,000,000.

The foundation has no project relating solely to Negro activities, but assistance in the form of scholarships and fellowships at the Juilliard School of Music is granted to individual Negro students of music, when selected, after examination, for such awards.

Among those who have received fellowships at the music school are:

Carol Brice, singing; Louise Burge, singing; Ernestine Covington, piano; Dean Dixon, conducting; Alexander Gatewood, singing; Robert Harris,

piano; Calvin Jackson, piano; Leviticus Lyon, singing; Lydia Mason, piano; Charles Welch, singing.

No statistics were kept on grants to Negroes during 1944 and 1945, according to the registrar.

LIBRARIES

In the southern states, library service to Negroes is now provided by approximately 121 public library systems. Of the more than nine million southern Negroes, 25.2 percent have public library facilities, according to a report on "Libraries, Librarians and the Negro," issued by the school of library service of Atlanta University in 1944.

In the board's survey of 1926, 55 public library systems were providing service for 11 percent of the Negro population. The increase is in urban areas. All southern cities with over 100,000 population provide some form of public library service to Negroes. Among 71 cities of 25,000 to 100,000 population, at least 52 provide such service. The great lack is still in the smaller cities and towns and in rural areas.

Only 7.7 percent of southern rural

Negroes receive public library service, while facilities are maintained for 58.8 percent of the urban Negro population. This disparity between urban and rural service is proportionately much greater than the disparity between the urban and rural population throughout the nation as a whole.

Four major forms of governmental organization have developed under which all organized local library services operate: (1) the Negro branch library, (2) the Negro library station, (3) the independent Negro library, and (4) service for the Negro through regular library channels.

In addition to these four major forms, certain minor forms of service have evolved, but the facilities offered are of such negligible character that they are relatively unimportant in any serious discussion of public library provisions.

PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICE TO NEGROES IN THE SOUTHERN STATES

Source: American Library Association

(Branch or Station Service Except as Indicated)

Alabama

Anniston
Birmingham
Bridgeport
Conway and Faulkner County
Jasper and Walker County
Jonesboro and Craighead County
Mobile
Osceola and Mississippi County
Scottsboro
Stevenson
Talladega (bookmobile service from Talladega College Library)

Arkansas

Little Rock and Pulaski County
Pinebluff and Jefferson County

Florida

Daytona Beach-Bethune-Cookman College Library
Jacksonville
Lakeland
Miami
Orlando
Pensacola
St. Petersburg
Tampa

Georgia

Atlanta
Augusta and Richmond County (independent library)
Columbus
Fitzgerald and Ben Hill County
Macon and Bibb County
Rome
Savannah (independent library)
Valdosta

Kentucky

Ashland
Covington and Kenton County (service through regular channels)
Danville
Georgetown
Henderson
Jackson
Lexington
Louisville and Jefferson County
Middlesborough
Newport (Negroes may borrow books but have not full privileges)
Owensboro
Paducah (Negroes may borrow books but have not full privileges)
Paris (Negroes may borrow books but have not full privileges)

Louisiana 14

Many and Savine Parish
 East Baton Rouge Parish
 Minden and Webster Parish
 Natchitoches Parish
 New Orleans
 Shreveport
 Winnfield and Winn Parish

Mississippi

Clarksdale and Coahoma County
 Corinth and Alcorn County
 Greenville (independent library)
 Gulfport (independent library)
 Jackson (independent library)
 Meridian

Missouri

(According to law, all tax-supported libraries are supposed to give service to Negroes. However, the following give only limited service.)

Cape Girardeau

DeSoto

Fredericktown

Kennett

Paris

Rolla

Springfield

Warrenton

(The following give no service: Caruthersville, Fulton, Hayti, Steele)

North Carolina

Asheville (independent library)
 Charlotte and Mecklenburg County
 Durham (independent library)
 Edenton
 Fayetteville
 Gastonia and Gaston County (also bookmobile service)
 Greensboro (independent library)
 Henderson
 High Point
 Kinston
 Leasville and Rockingham County
 Lenoir and Caldwell County
 Lexington and Davidson County (also bookmobile service)

Manteo

New Bern (independent library)

Raleigh and Wake County (independent library)

Rocky Mount (independent library)

Roxboro

Salisbury

Sanford and Lee County

Shelby

Southern Pines

Tarboro (independent library)

Taylorsville and Alexander County

Warrenton (independent library)

Weldon

Wilmington (independent library)

Wilson

Winston-Salem

Winton (independent library)

Oklahoma

Enid and Garfield County

Guthrie

Muskogee

Oklahoma City

Okmulgee

Ponca City

Sapulpa

Tulsa

South Carolina

Beaufort

Charleston and Charleston County

Columbia and Richland County

Darlington and Darlington County (service to Negro schools)

Greenville and Greenville County

Lancaster and Lancaster County (also bookmobile service)

Orangeburg and Orangeburg County

Rock Hill

Tennessee

Chattanooga and Hamilton County

Knoxville and Knox County

Memphis and Shelby County

Nashville

Texas

(According to state law all county libraries [there are 27 in Texas] must give service to Negroes. Such service has now been established in those listed below.)

Amarillo and Potter County

Austin Public and Travis County (service through regular channels)

Beaumont, Tyrrell Public Library

Beaumont, Jefferson County Library

Brady and McCulloch County

Brownwood

Corpus Christi (service through regular channels)

Corsicana

Dallas (service through regular channels)

Fort Worth and Tarrant County

Gainesville and Cooke County

Galveston and Galveston County

Houston, Public Library

Houston, Harris County Library

Lufkin (service through regular channels)

Marshall and Harrison County, Wiley College Carnegie Library

Midland and Midland County

Missions (service through regular channels)

Nacogdoches and Nacogdoches County

Pecos (service through regular channels)

Port Arthur

San Angelo and Tom Green County

San Antonio and Bexar County (service through regular channels)

Stinnett and Hutchinson County (service through regular channels)

Sulphur Springs

Waco

Wharton and Wharton County (service through regular channels)

Wichita Falls

Virginia

Alexandria, Robert Robinson Library (independent)

Charlotte Courthouse and Charlotte County (bookmobile service)

Charlottesville

Chatham and Pittsylvania County (bookmobile service)

Danville

Galax and Grayson County (Negroes may borrow books but may not use the reading room)

Jonesville and Lee County (bookmobile service)

Lynchburg

Newport News

14 Louisiana Library Commission has a state-supported service for Negroes located at Southern University, Scotlandville, La., established in 1943.

Norfolk
 Petersburg (room in main library with
 separate entrance)
 Portsmouth
 Richmond
 Richmond County (independent library
 and bookmobile service)
 Roanoke
 Salem

Staunton
 Winchester
 West Virginia (service through regular
 channels)
 Charleston and Kanawa County. In addition
 to service through regular channels,
 this library maintains a public branch
 which is located in the Negro high
 school at Charleston.

THE UNITED NEGRO COLLEGE FUND

The United Negro College Fund, a voluntary organization comprising 33 Negro private colleges, was founded in November, 1943, and incorporated on April 24, 1944, for the purpose of conducting annually a united appeal for funds with which to help meet the current operating expenses of the member institutions.

In conducting its appeals, the fund has had the active support of a group of prominent persons who have served as national campaign officers. These have been John D. Rockefeller, Jr.; Walter Hoving, New York department store executive; Thomas A. Morgan, President of Sperry Corporation; and Winthrop W. Aldrich and Frank M. Totton, chairman and vice-president,

respectively, of the board of the Chase National Bank.

The first appeal was made in the spring of 1944 and resulted in \$900,000. The second appeal, made in the spring of 1945, collected \$1,069,000. The 1946 campaign had as its goal \$1,300,000.

It is the practice of the fund to concentrate its efforts during an intensive period in what are called major campaign cities. In 1946 these numbered some 54 cities, primarily outside of the South. It is the objective of the organization to appeal to an increasing number of small givers, especially among Negroes. In 1945, for example, approximately \$160,000 was raised among Negroes.

WILLIAM AND MARY INCIDENT

President John E. Pomfret of the College of William and Mary at Williamsburg, Va. (all-white school), temporarily suspended publication of its student bulletin, *Flat Hat*, on February 11, 1945, pending action of its faculty on an editorial published by Marilyn Kaemmerle, twenty-two-year-old editor. The editorial discussed the race problem and stated, among other things, that the time would come "when Negroes should attend the college, joining the same groups, sit in the same classes and marry among us."

The youthful editor was born in the South, but reared in Jackson, Mich., where she lived at the time.

On the next day, the college president told Miss Kaemmerle, it was reported in the press, that if *Flat Hat* was to continue publication, she would have to resign as its editor and that

henceforth the paper would be censored by faculty members.

At a mass meeting held by the students subsequent to this announcement, they voted to protest against infringement of the doctrine of freedom of the press. At a meeting of the faculty, the group voted, although not unanimously, to support the president's stand. A minority statement was issued by those disagreeing with the vote.

At the next meeting of the student body, it was voted to abolish *Flat Hat* rather than have it censored. Rumors then began to circulate on the campus that infuriated Southerners might mob the school, that the affair might start a race riot, and other alarming incidents might occur. The president conferred with the president of the student assembly and expressed his anxiety and alarm. They worked out a

compromise that was finally accepted by the student body.

The resolution adopted by the students stated that they did not approve of the editorial in question; that *Flat*

Hat editors would be held responsible for material scheduled for the paper, and that if they were doubtful about an article, the faculty should be consulted.

Y.M.C.A. COLLEGE IN CHICAGO

The Y.M.C.A. College in Chicago, a low-cost institution in the Loop district, supervised by leading banks, was asked by its supporters in 1944 to put a quota on Negro students when it was found that 25 percent of the student body was Negro. President James Sprawling refused to impose a racial quota at the school and handed in his resignation. Simultaneously, most of

the faculty members resigned and the students supported them. Marshall Field III and others, including the staff of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, then raised half a million dollars to found a new low-cost school in the district and named it Roosevelt College. Former faculty members and students rallied to the new school and the Y.M.C.A. College was closed.

PEPSI-COLA SCHOLARSHIPS

In 1944 the Pepsi-Cola Company inaugurated an annual nation-wide competition for high school pupils, the winners of which are given a four-year scholarship to the college of their choosing. In states where both Negro and white pupils attend the same high schools Negroes compete for the scholarships on an equal basis with whites. In the states maintaining separate schools for white and Negro pupils, the company offers separate scholarships for Negroes. Dr. Mordecai W. Johnson, President of Howard University, is a member of the board of educators which plans and

administers the competition.

Winners of the scholarships receive complete tuition and other required fees for the four-year college course, together with \$25 a month to help defray living costs.

In the first competition, consisting of pupils who made the highest grade in a competitive examination prepared and scored by the college entrance board, nineteen Negroes in the southern states were among the winners. Twenty scholarships were offered to Negroes in the segregated states and the District of Columbia, but none entered from Delaware.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS

ALL-NEGRO DENOMINATIONS

**With Date of Organization, Number of Churches, Value of Church Edifices,
Number of Members, Names and Addresses of Head Officers**

(All values of church edifices are as of 1936)

Source: 1945 *Yearbook of American Churches* and Bureau of the Census

- African Orthodox Church**, organized 1921 with order through Archbishop of the Assyrian Jacobite Church, autonomous; churches, 32; value, \$36,204; members, 5200 (1942); patriarch, Archbishop William E. Robertson, 122 West 129th St., New York; sec., the Rev. W. R. Miller, 496 Putnam Ave., Brooklyn, N.Y.
- Apostolic Overcoming Holy Church of God**, 1916; churches, 200; value \$16,040; members, 8000 (1942); Bishop W. T. Phillips, 1070 Congress St., Mobile, Ala.
- Baptist Bodies:**
National Baptist Convention, United States of America, Incorporated (older and parent body of Negro Baptists, usually referred to as the "incorporated" convention), churches, 24,460; members, 4,021,618 (1944).
National Baptist Convention of America (split from the above body in 1917, usually referred to as the "unincorporated" convention), churches, 7,286; members, 2,352,339 (1944).
 (Combined value of church edifices in 1936 was rated at \$93,798,-181.)
- Colored Primitive Baptists**; churches, 1009; value, \$1,643,804; members, 43,897 (1936); statistical officer, the Rev. W. Scott, 2712 22nd Ave., Tampa, Fla.
- National Baptist Evangelical Life and Soul-Saving Assembly of the U.S.A.**, 1921; churches, 471; value, \$84,459; members, 59,743 (1944); executive captain, the Rev. A. A. Banks, 124 Broadway, Boise, Ida.
- United American Free Will Baptists (Colored)**; churches, 226; value, \$468,883; members, 19,616 (1942).
- Christ's Sanctified Holy Church**, 1903; churches, 32; members, 831 (1942); pres., the Rev. Dempsey Perkins, 2203 Poplar St., Beaumont, Tex.
- Church of Christ, Holiness, United States of America**, 1894; churches, 134; value, \$305,152; members, 11,751 (1944); senior bishop, the Rev. C. P. Jones, Los Angeles, Calif.
- Church of God and Saints of Christ** (commonly known as "Black Jews"); churches, 213; value, \$544,270; members, 37,084 (1936); officer, Bishop H. Z. Plummer, P. O. Box 187, Portsmouth, Va.
- Church of God in Christ**, 1895; churches, 2000; value, \$1,453,128; members, 300,000 (1944).
- Churches of God, Holiness**, 1914; churches, 35; value, \$116,900; members, 5872 (1936); officer, Bishop K. H. Burrus; cor. sec., B. M. Andrews, 170 N. Ashby St., Atlanta, Ga.
- Churches of the Living God:**
Church of the Living God (Christian Workers for Fellowship), 1889; churches, 6; value, \$130,100; members, 120 (1944); chief, John W. Christian, 50 Woodlawn St., Memphis, Tenn.
- Church of the Living God, the Pil-**

- lar and Ground of the Truth; churches, 119; value, \$115,426; members, 4838 (1936); officer, Bishop A. H. White, 3928 Aspen St., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Fire Baptized Holiness Church of God of the Americas**, 1898; churches, 300; value, \$146,232; members, 6000 (1940); officer, Bishop W. E. Fuller, 556 Houston St., Atlanta, Ga.
- Free Christian Zion Church of Christ**, 1905; churches, 37; value, \$8442; members, 2478 (1944); presiding chief, the Rev. W. M. Benson, Nashville, Ark.
- House of God, Holy Church of the Living God, the Pillar and Ground of the Truth, House of Prayer for All People**,¹ 1918; churches, 4; value, \$1500; members, 200 (1936).
- House of the Lord**, 1925; churches, 4; members, 302 (1936); overseer, Bishop W. H. Johnson, 1015 Illinois St., Detroit, Mich.
- Independent Negro Churches**; ² churches, 50; value, \$180,300; members, 12,337 (1936).
- Kodesh Church of Immanuel**, 1929; churches, 9; value, \$11,000; members, 562 (1936); supervising elder, the Rev. F. R. Killingsworth, 1509 S St., N.W., Washington, D.C.
- Latter House of the Lord (Apostolic Faith)**, 1936; churches, 2; value, \$2400; members, 29 (1936).
- Lutheran Bodies**:
Negro Mission of Synodical Conference, 1877; churches, 89; value, \$369,150; members, 11,521 (1944); officer, the Rev. Theo. F. Walther, 6402 Easton Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
- Methodist Bodies**:
African Methodist Episcopal Church, 1816; churches, 7265; value, \$20,710,623; members, 868,735 (1942); chairman, Bishops' Council, Bishop W. A. Fountain, 242 Boulevard, N.E., Atlanta, Ga.
African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, 1821; churches, 2252; value, \$14,750,165; members, 489,-
 244 (1940); gen. sec., S. M. Dudley, 1614 14th St., N.W., Washington, D.C.
African Union First Colored Methodist Protestant Church, 1805; churches, 36; members, 2597 (1944); pres., general conference, the Rev. J. W. Brown, 702 Poplar St., Wilmington, Del.
Colored Methodist Episcopal Church, 1870 (organized from the Negro members of the Methodist Episcopal Church South ³ with the approval of the mother body); churches, 4400; value, \$6,148,826; members, 382,000 (1944); sec. general conference, W. A. Bell, 141½ Auburn Ave., N.E., Atlanta, Ga.
Independent African Methodist Episcopal Denomination, The, 1907; churches, 12; value, \$16,789; members, 1000 (1940); fin. sec., Dr. J. P. Green, 77-D Concord St., Charleston, S.C.
Reformed Methodist Union Episcopal Church, 1885; churches, 43; value, \$49,229; members, 3000 (1942); pres., general council, Bishop J. R. Privlane, 45 Kenney St., Charleston, S.C.
Reformed Zion Union Apostolic Church, 1869; churches, 52; value, \$283,100; members, 3000 (1943); bishop, Rt. Rev. G. W. Taylor, South Hill, Va.; rec. sec., Prof. D. T. Jones, Boynton, Va.
Union American Methodist Episcopal Church, 1852; churches, 71; value, \$516,630; members, 9369 (1936); bishop, general council, Bishop Philip A. Bolden; sec., B. M. Fernanders, 58 Dixwell Ave., New Haven, Conn.
Wesleyan Methodist Connection of America, 1843; churches, 820; members, 29,331 (1944); pres., general conference, the Rev. F. R. Eddy, 330 E. Onondaga St., Syracuse, N.Y.; sec., E. F. McCarthy, 222 S. Clemens Ave., Lansing, Mich.
National David Spiritual Temple of

Christ Church Union (Inc.), United States of America, 1921; churches, 30; value, \$6875; members, 15,898 (1944); pres., Bishop David William Short, 1115 W. Cherry St., Milwaukee, Wis.

United Holy Church of America, Inc., 1896; churches, 275; value, \$344,722; members, 25,000 (1944); officer, Bishop H. L. Fisher, 305 W. 140th St., New York, N.Y.

Presbyterian Bodies:

Colored Cumberland Presbyterian Church, 1869; churches, 121; value, \$359,125; members, 30,000 (1944).

Triumph the Church and Kingdom of God in Christ, 1902; churches, 400; value, \$1000; members, 30,000 (1940);⁴ officer, Bishop C. C. Coleman, 808 Elmer St., Biloxi, Miss.

¹ All four of these organizations constitute one denomination.

² Churches reported without any denominational designation, which were not included in any of the denominational lists received by the Census Bureau in its 1936 religious census.

³ Merged with the Methodist Episcopal Church and the Methodist Protestant Church in 1940 to form the Methodist Church.

⁴ The Census Bureau reported two churches in 1936 (last census of churches). The statistics here given are reported in the *Yearbook of American Churches, 1943*.

NEGROES IN RACIALLY MIXED DENOMINATIONS

Sources: United States Religious Census of 1936 and Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America

EDITOR'S NOTE: The 1942 statistics on total membership in most cases show an increase over the 1936 census figures; therefore it is logical to expect that 1942 Negro membership figures would be higher than those given here, which were taken from the 1936 census. The 1942 statistics were published by the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, which does not list separately Negro membership of the denominations given below. It has no later breakdown of racial membership in racially mixed denominations.

Denomination	Total Membership		Negro Membership
	1942	1936	1936
Baptist Bodies:			
Northern Baptist Convention.....	1,538,871	1,329,044	45,821
Christian and Missionary Alliance.....	⁵ 32,872	32,145	135
Church of Christ, Scientist.....		268,915	262
Church of God.....	82,462	44,818	1,405
Church of God (headquarters in Anderson, Ind.)	83,875	56,911	4,310
Churches of God in North America (General Eldership)	33,727	30,820	204
Congregational Christian Churches	1,052,701	976,388	20,437
Disciples of Christ	1,655,580	1,196,315	21,950
Apostolic Episcopal Church		6,389	161
Federated Churches		88,411	50
International Church of the Foursquare Gospel	250,000	16,147	28
Lutheran Bodies:			
American Lutheran Church	547,812	499,899	82
Evangelical Lutheran Synodical Conference of North America (not including the Slovak and Norwegian Synods) ...	1,646,794	1,436,940	8,985
Methodist Church	6,640,424	5,719,734	⁶ 331,704
Moravian Church in America.....		30,904	628
Presbyterian Bodies:			
Presbyterian Church in the United States of America	1,986,257	1,797,927	2,971
United Presbyterian Church of North America	190,724	170,976	45
Presbyterian Church in the United States	546,479	449,045	279

NEGROES IN RACIALLY MIXED DENOMINATIONS (Cont.)

Denomination	Total Membership		Negro Membership
	1942	1936	1936
Protestant Episcopal Church	2,074,178	1,735,335	63,306
Reformed Episcopal Church	8,639	7,646	2,434
Roman Catholic Church	22,945,247	19,914,937	137,684 [†]
Salvation Army	220,367	103,038	436
Seventh-Day Adventists	186,478	133,254	6,367
Spiritualists:			
Progressive Spiritualist Church	11,347	365

⁵ As of 1939.⁶ As of 1943.[†] The Negro membership for 1945 is given as 330,000. See topic "Some Facts and Figures on Catholics," page 157.

BISHOPS OF AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

1945

District 1; D. H. Sims, 211 N. 53rd St., Philadelphia, Pa.	District 9; D. Ward Nichols, 209 Edgecombe Ave., New York, N.Y.
District 2; M. H. Davis, 815 N. Arlington Ave., Baltimore, Md.	District 10; G. B. Young, Paul Quinn College, Waco, Tex.
District 3; Reverdy C. Ransom, Wilberforce, O.	District 11; H. Y. Tookes, Edward Waters College, Jacksonville, Fla.
District 4; J. A. Gregg, 1150 Washington Blvd., Kansas City, Kan.	District 12; G. E. Curry, 2810 W. 6th St., Jacksonville, Fla.
District 5; Noah W. Williams, 4423 Enright Ave., St. Louis, Mo.	District 13; R. R. Wright, Jr., Wilberforce University, O.
District 6; W. A. Fountain, 242 Boulevard N.E., Atlanta, Ga.	District 14; J. H. Clayborne, 1800 Marshall St., Little Rock, Ark.
District 7; F. M. Reid, Allen University, Columbia, S.C.	District 15; F. M. Reid, 4309 Enright Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
District 8; S. L. Green, 3612 Calhoun St., New Orleans, La.	District 16; A. J. Allen, 2193 E. 89th St., Cleveland, O.
District 17; George W. Baber, 550 Mt. Vernon Ave., Detroit, Mich.	

BISHOPS OF AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL ZION CHURCH

1945

District 1; B. G. Shaw, 1210 Charles St., N., Birmingham, Ala.	District 6; E. L. Madison, 2838 Centre Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa.
District 2; W. J. Walls, 4736 S. Parkway, Chicago, Ill.	District 7; W. C. Brown, 527 E. Jefferson Blvd., Los Angeles, Cal.
District 3; J. W. Martin, 4550 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.	District 8; W. W. Slade, 410 E. First St., Charlotte, N.C.
District 4; C. C. Alleyne, 1715 W. Montgomery St., Philadelphia, Pa.	District 9; B. F. Gordon, 527 Carmel St., Charlotte, N.C.
District 5; W. W. Matthews, 9 Logan Circle, N.W., Washington, D.C.	District 10; F. W. Alstork, 622 Kiefer Pl., N.W., Washington, D.C.
District 11; E. B. Watson, 1624 E. 8th St., Oklahoma City, Okla.	

BISHOPS OF COLORED METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

1945

- C. H. Phillips, 10828 Drexel Ave.,
Cleveland, O.
R. A. Carter, 4408 Vincennes Ave.,
Chicago, Ill.
J. A. Hamlett, 2112 N. 5th St., Kansas
City, Kan.
H. P. Porter, 252 N. Middleton St.,
Jackson, Tenn.
- J. H. Moore, Holly Springs, Miss.
W. Y. Bell, Holsey Institute, Cordele,
Ga.
C. L. Russell, 1843 S St., N.W., Wash-
ington, D.C.
J. W. McKinney, Sherman, Tex. (Re-
tired.)

**BISHOPS OF THE CENTRAL JURISDICTION OF
THE METHODIST CHURCH⁸**

1945

- Columbus Area; Bishop Edward W.
Kelly, Sr., 4160 Enright Ave., St.
Louis
Baltimore Area; Bishop Alexander P.
Shaw, 1206 Etting St., Baltimore,
Md.
Atlantic Coast Area; Bishop Lorenzo
H. King, 250 Auburn Ave., N.E.,
Atlanta, Ga.
New Orleans Area; Bishop R. N.
Brooks, 631 Baronne St., New Or-
leans, La.
Liberia, West Africa; Bishop Willis J.
King of Atlanta, Ga.

SOME FACTS AND FIGURES ON CATHOLICS

Source: The Rev. Clarence J. Howard, S.V.D., Editor, *St. Augustine's Messenger*

Negro Catholic Population

In 1945 there were 330,000 Negro Roman Catholics out of a total of 23,963,671 in the 117 dioceses and archdioceses of the United States. There are 351 Catholic churches for the exclusive use of Negroes, but thousands of Negro Catholics attend racially mixed churches.

Approximately 520 Catholic priests, 30 Brothers and 1900 Sisters devote themselves entirely to the work of the Catholic Church among American Negroes in churches, schools, hospitals, and orphanages.

Institutions

There are 277 Catholic grammar schools for Negroes, 61 high schools, 13 boarding schools, 1 nurses' training school, 1 college, and 1 theological seminary, which have an enrollment of 58,294 pupils.

In regard to social welfare and health facilities, there are 7 Negro

Catholic hospitals, 12 clinics, 1 home for incurables, 12 orphanages, 3 day nurseries, and 2 homes for the aged.

Catholic Priests

There are 22 Negro priests in the United States today; 17 of these are members of religious communities of priests, while 5 belong to the diocesan clergy. Five other Negro priests are doing foreign missionary work in Africa and the British West Indies.

Following is the list of priests:

Rev. Norman DuKette, of Washington, D.C., ordained 1925; pastor, Christ the King Church, Flint, Mich.

Rev. Charles Logan, of Los Angeles, Calif., ordained 1933; assistant, Our Lady Help of Christians Church, Los Angeles, Calif.

Rev. William Lane, of New York, N.Y., ordained 1933; temporarily in the Archdiocese of Cincinnati, O.

Rev. Anthony Bourges, S.V.D., of Lafayette, La., ordained 1934; pastor,

⁸ The Central Jurisdiction is composed of approximately 95 percent of the Negro membership of the Methodist Church, formed by the merger of the three main Methodist bodies in 1940: namely, the Methodist Episcopal Church, Methodist Episcopal Church South, and Methodist Protestant Church.

Immaculate Heart of Mary Church, Lafayette, La.

Rev. Maurice Rousseve, S.V.D., of New Orleans, La., ordained 1934; pastor, Our Lady of Perpetual Help Church, St. Martinville, La.

Rev. Vincent Smith, S.V.D., of Lebanon, Ky., ordained 1934; pastor, Our Lady of the Divine Shepherd Church, Trenton, N.J.

Rev. Francis Wade, S.V.D., of Washington, D.C., ordained 1934; pastor, St. Benedict the Moor Church, Duson, La.

Rev. Clarence Howard, S.V.D., of Norfolk, Va., ordained 1937; editor of *St. Augustine's Messenger*, Bay Saint Louis, Miss.

Rev. Marcus Glover, W.F., of New York, N.Y., ordained 1937; temporarily stationed at the White Fathers' Novitiate, Alexandria Bay, N.Y.

Rev. Leo Woods, S.V.D., of Kokomo, Ind., ordained 1939; professor, St. Augustine's Seminary, Bay Saint Louis, Miss.

Rev. Leander Martin, S.V.D., of Grand Coteau, La., ordained 1941; assistant, Our Lady of Perpetual Help Church, St. Martinville, La.

Rev. Maxine Williams, S.V.D., of Bay Saint Louis, Miss., ordained 1941; assistant, Our Lady of Perpetual Help Church, St. Martinville, La.

Rev. Richard Winters, S.V.D., of Pleasantville, N.J., ordained 1941; assistant, Immaculate Heart of Mary Church, Lafayette, La.

Rev. Chester Ball, S.S.J., of Washington, D.C., ordained 1941; pastor, St. Joseph's Church, Glen Arden, Landover P.O., Md.

Rev. Alexander Leedie, S.V.D., of Yonkers, N.Y., ordained 1941; assistant, St. Peter Claver's Church, Asbury Park, N.J.

Rev. Harold Perry, S.V.D., of Lake Charles, La., ordained 1944; assistant, Immaculate Heart of Mary Church, Lafayette, La.

Rev. Arthur Winters, S.V.D., of Pleasantville, N.J., ordained 1945; associate editor and professor, St. Au-

gustine's Seminary, Bay Saint Louis, Miss.

Rev. Austin Chachere, M.S.S.S.T., of Opelousas, La., ordained 1945; managing editor of *The Missionary Servant*, Stirling, N.J.

Rev. Thomas Jones, of Albany, N.Y., ordained 1945; assistant, St. Thomas' Church, Old Bridge, N.J.

Rev. William Adams, S.V.D., of Cambridge, Mass., ordained 1945; temporarily at St. Augustine's Seminary, Bay Saint Louis, Miss.

Army Chaplains

Major John Bowman, S.V.D., of Washington, D.C., ordained 1939; served with the 93rd Infantry Division in the South Pacific.

Captain William Grau, of Cleveland, O., ordained 1934; served with the 92nd Infantry Division in Italy.

In the Foreign Missions

Rev. Max Murphy, of Dallas, Tex., ordained 1934; Trinidad, British West Indies.

Rev. Theldon Jones, of San Antonio, Tex., ordained 1935; Trinidad, British West Indies.

Rev. Joseph Bowers, S.V.D., of Roseau, Dominica, B.W.I., ordained 1939; Gold Coast, British West Africa.

Rev. John Dauphine, S.V.D., of Port Arthur, Tex., ordained 1939; Gold Coast, British West Africa.

Rev. George Wilson, S.V.D., of New York, N.Y., ordained 1941; Gold Coast, British West Africa.

Brothers

There are 14 Negro Catholic religious Brothers in the United States: 11 of these belong to the Society of the Divine Word, and 1 each to the Order of St. Benedict, the Society of Jesus, and the Missionary Brothers of the Sacred Heart.

Sisterhoods

There are four communities of Negro Sisters in this country. The Oblate Sisters of Providence, with headquar-

ters in Baltimore, Md., was founded in 1829 and now numbers 250 Sisters. The Sisters of the Holy Family, with headquarters in New Orleans, La., was established in 1842 and now has 245 members. The Handmaids of Mary,

with headquarters in New York City, was established in 1916 and now has 30 Sisters. The Magdalen Sisters at the Good Shepherd Convent, Baltimore, Md., was established in 1922 and now numbers 15.

CRIME

PRISONERS IN STATE AND FEDERAL INSTITUTIONS

Source: Bureau of the Census

No definite conclusions regarding the relative criminality of Negroes and whites can be drawn from statistics of prison commitments. Prison statistics do not necessarily reflect the proportionate number of crimes committed by the two races or the number of arrests made. Crime statistics indicate that, in general, Negro offenders are more likely to be arrested by the police than are white offenders.

Moreover, an unqualified comparison of white and Negro crime rates is not entirely justifiable because of differences in economic and educational status. Proportionately more Negro than white persons live in neighborhoods with extremely poor living conditions.

Most of the northern and western

Negroes are city dwellers who, for the most part, migrated from the South and are still undergoing adjustment to new conditions.

Statistics on race and nativity of felony prisoners received from court during the 5 years from 1939 to 1943 are presented in table 1. The proportion of prisoners who were white decreased from 72.6 percent in 1939 to 68.6 percent in 1943, while the proportion who were Negro increased from 26.3 percent in 1939 to 30.1 percent in 1943. As can be seen from the data in this table, the foreign born in this country contributed a relatively small proportion (4.3 percent during the past 5 years) of the prisoners admitted to our penal institutions.

TABLE 1.—FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT IN FEDERAL AND STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY RACE AND NATIVITY, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1939 TO 1943

(Excludes statistics for state institutions as follows: Georgia, all years; Mississippi, 1940, 1941, 1942, and 1943; Alabama, 1939; Pennsylvania, 1941; and Michigan, 1942 and 1943)

Race and Nativity	Number					Percent Distribution				
	1943	1942	1941	1940	1939	1943	1942	1941	1940	1939
All classes	40,273	47,761	56,023	62,692	62,000	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	27,616	32,482	38,927	44,258	44,990	68.6	68.0	69.5	70.6	72.6
Native	25,888	30,179	36,423	41,541	42,648	64.3	63.2	65.0	66.3	68.8
Foreign born	1,728	2,303	2,504	2,717	2,342	4.3	4.8	4.5	4.3	3.8
Negro	12,131	14,660	16,355	17,677	16,309	30.1	30.7	29.2	28.2	26.3
Other races	526	619	741	757	701	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1

¹ Includes county prisoners in Alabama.

FELONY PRISONERS: 1944

(Preliminary statistics on race, nativity, and offense)

Of the 38,880 male felony prisoners received from court by state and federal prisons and reformatories during 1944, 25,291, or 65.0 percent, were native white and 11,354, or 29.2 percent, were Negro. Foreign-born white and

persons of other races constituted 4.2 and 1.5 percent, respectively, of the male felony prisoners received from court.

Burglary and larceny were the two most frequent offenses among both

Negroes and whites. Together, these two offenses accounted for 31.4 percent of the white commitments and 37.7 percent of the Negro commitments during 1944.

Foreign-born white males were most frequently committed for violations of National Defense laws and "other offenses." The proportion of foreign-born white in these two offense groups is high largely because these groups include most of the violations of statutes, such as the Alien Registration Act and various immigration laws, which apply exclusively to aliens.

The statistics presented in table 2 are for male felony prisoners received from court. This group comprises prisoners sentenced to terms of six months or more for offenses other than those falling into the general classifications of disorderly conduct, drunkenness, or vagrancy.

The statistics are based on reports from 147 state and federal institutions. Statistics were not received for state institutions in Michigan, Georgia, and

Mississippi, and for certain institutions in other states, such as state farms, which receive prisoners only on transfer or only prisoners committed for misdemeanors.

Likewise, statistics for juvenile training schools, military and naval prisons, and local jails and workhouses are not included.

Statistics on the race and nativity of male felony prisoners by percent received from court in state institutions are presented for regions and states in table 3.

Regions and States

Table 5 presents, for the 4 regions, the distribution of felony commitments to state institutions by race, nativity, and sex. The proportions of the various race and nativity groups among commitments to state institutions varied considerably by regions. In the main, this variation reflected differences in the race and nativity composition of the total population in the respective regions.

TABLE 2.—MALE FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT, BY OFFENSE, RACE, AND NATIVITY, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1944

OFFENSE	White				
	All Classes	Native Born	Foreign Born	Negro	Other Races
All offenses	38,880	25,291	1,650	11,354	585
Murder	1,214	519	28	650	17
Manslaughter	891	355	26	502	8
Robbery	2,994	1,747	35	1,195	17
Aggravated assault	2,062	848	75	1,103	36
Burglary	6,311	4,049	80	2,145	37
Larceny, except auto theft.....	6,515	4,215	111	2,131	58
Auto theft	2,720	2,260	20	423	17
Embezzlement and fraud.....	1,123	945	76	99	3
Stolen property	425	253	19	150	3
Forgery	2,175	1,781	29	335	30
Rape	1,583	1,001	46	501	35
Commercialized vice	261	197	15	47	2
Other sex offenses	1,089	898	74	107	10
Violating drug laws.....	1,121	668	82	288	83
Carrying and possessing weapons...	158	74	1	82	1
Nonsupport or neglect.....	389	297	14	75	3
Violating liquor laws.....	1,983	1,247	81	636	19
Violating traffic laws.....	73	56	1	15	1
Violating National Defense laws...	3,826	2,773	262	610	181
Other offenses	1,967	1,108	575	260	24

**TABLE 3.—PERCENT OF MALE FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED
FROM COURT IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY RACE AND
NATIVITY, FOR REGIONS AND STATES: 1944**

(Excludes statistics for state institutions in Michigan, Georgia, and Mississippi)

REGION AND STATE	Number All Classes	PERCENT OF ALL CLASSES				
		Total	White Native	Foreign Born	Negro	Other Races
United States	26,820	66.1	64.0	2.1	33.1	0.7
THE NORTHEASTERN STATES	5,582	72.2	68.5	3.7	27.6	0.2
New England:						
Maine	209	95.7	90.9	4.8	3.8	0.5
New Hampshire	60	96.7	93.3	3.3	3.3	..
Vermont	112	100.0	91.1	8.9
Massachusetts	533	90.2	86.1	4.1	9.6	0.2
Rhode Island	138	88.4	86.2	2.2	11.6	..
Connecticut	315	84.8	79.7	5.1	15.2	..
Middle Atlantic:						
New York	2,057	68.2	64.3	3.9	31.4	0.4
New Jersey	1,043	63.4	59.6	3.7	36.5	0.1
Pennsylvania	1,115	65.1	62.9	2.2	34.9	..
THE NORTH CENTRAL STATES ...	6,355	76.9	75.1	1.9	22.0	1.0
East North Central:						
Ohio	1,621	62.7	61.5	1.1	37.3	..
Indiana	853	83.4	82.2	1.2	16.6	..
Illinois	898	66.8	63.6	3.2	33.2	..
Wisconsin	661	89.0	85.3	3.6	8.2	2.9
West North Central:						
Minnesota	355	93.0	85.1	7.9	3.7	3.4
Iowa	414	96.4	96.1	0.2	3.6	..
Missouri	810	76.7	76.5	0.1	23.2	0.1
North Dakota	84	88.1	83.3	4.8	1.2	10.7
South Dakota	79	78.5	74.7	3.8	..	21.5
Nebraska	263	91.3	90.9	0.4	6.8	1.9
Kansas	317	78.2	78.2	..	21.1	0.6
THE SOUTH	10,714	48.7	48.0	0.8	50.8	0.4
South Atlantic:						
Delaware	70	34.3	34.3	..	65.7	..
Maryland	1,676	39.4	38.5	0.8	60.6	..
District of Columbia	415	25.5	24.8	0.7	74.2	0.2
Virginia	1,194	36.5	36.4	0.1	63.5	..
West Virginia	275	86.2	85.1	1.1	13.8	..
North Carolina	857	43.1	43.1	..	55.0	2.0
South Carolina	239	64.9	64.9	..	35.1	..
Florida	703	43.2	42.5	0.7	56.8	..
East South Central:						
Kentucky	730	73.4	73.2	0.3	26.6	..
Tennessee	522	52.5	52.5	..	47.5	..
Alabama	912	36.3	36.3	..	63.6	0.1
West South Central:						
Arkansas	354	42.4	42.4	..	57.6	..
Louisiana	554	32.3	32.1	0.2	67.7	..
Oklahoma	646	71.8	71.7	0.2	24.3	3.9
Texas	1,567	63.7	60.2	3.4	36.3	..

TABLE 3.—PERCENT OF MALE FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY RACE AND NATIVITY, FOR REGIONS AND STATES: 1944 (Cont.)

REGION AND STATE	Number All Classes	PERCENT OF ALL CLASSES				
		White			Negro	Other Races
		Total	Native	Foreign Born		
THE WEST	4,169	86.3	82.7	3.6	11.8	1.9
Mountain:						
Montana	148	90.5	86.5	4.1	..	9.5
Idaho	104	92.3	91.3	1.0	6.7	1.0
Wyoming	106	89.6	88.7	0.9	8.5	1.9
Colorado	421	93.3	91.7	1.7	6.7	..
New Mexico	181	87.8	81.2	6.6	9.9	2.2
Arizona	269	84.0	80.3	3.7	11.9	4.1
Utah	101	94.1	93.1	1.0	4.0	2.0
Nevada	115	94.8	94.8	..	4.3	0.9
Pacific:						
Washington	666	87.5	85.0	2.6	10.2	2.3
Oregon	340	94.1	92.1	2.1	4.1	1.8
California	1,718	80.7	75.6	5.2	17.9	1.4

TABLE 4.—FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT, BY TYPE OF INSTITUTION, RACE, NATIVITY, AND SEX, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1943

(Excludes statistics for state institutions in Michigan, Georgia, and Mississippi)

Race and Nativity	All Institutions			Federal Institutions			State Institutions		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
All classes	40,273	38,225	2,048	10,736	10,454	282	29,537	27,771	1,766
White	27,616	26,391	1,225	8,404	8,196	208	19,212	18,195	1,017
Native	25,888	24,717	1,171	7,361	7,162	199	18,527	17,555	972
Foreign born	1,728	1,674	54	1,043	1,034	9	685	640	45
Negro	12,131	11,328	803	2,097	2,028	69	10,034	9,300	734
Other races	526	506	20	235	230	5	291	276	15
Indian	351	332	19	121	117	4	230	215	15
Chinese	119	118	1	94	93	1	25	25	..
Japanese	16	16	..	7	7	..	9	9	..
Filipino	32	32	..	6	6	..	26	26	..
All other	8	8	..	7	7	..	1	1	..

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION

All classes	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	68.6	69.0	59.8	78.3	78.4	73.8	65.0	65.5	57.6
Native	64.3	64.7	57.2	68.6	68.5	70.6	62.7	63.2	55.0
Foreign born	4.3	4.4	2.6	9.7	9.9	3.2	2.3	2.3	2.5
Negro	30.1	29.6	39.2	19.5	19.4	24.5	34.0	33.5	41.6
Other races	1.3	1.3	1.0	2.2	2.2	1.8	1.0	1.0	0.8

Thus, Negroes constituted 52.8 percent of all felony commitments to state institutions in the South; 28.4 percent in the northeastern states; 20.6 percent in the north central states; and 10.7 percent in the western states. The proportion of foreign-born white was greatest in the northeastern states (5.0 percent) and least in the southern states (0.4 percent). Prisoners of "other races" (chiefly Indians, Filipinos, and Orientals) were proportion-

ately more numerous in the western states.

Table 6 shows, by states, the number of male and female felony prisoners received from the courts by state institutions during 1943, classified according to race and nativity. In 9 of the 15 southern states for which statistics are available (including the District of Columbia) Negro commitments predominated. Twenty-seven states reported prisoners of races other

TABLE 5.—FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY RACE, NATIVITY, AND SEX, BY REGIONS: 1943

(Excludes statistics for institutions in Michigan, Georgia, and Mississippi)

Race, Nativity, and Sex	United States	Number				Percent Distribution				
		The North- eastern States	The North Central States	The South	The West	United States	The North- eastern States	The North Central States	The South	The West
Total	29,537	6,416	7,088	11,944	4,089	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	19,212	4,565	5,516	5,599	3,532	65.0	71.2	77.8	46.9	86.4
Native	18,527	4,245	5,373	5,552	3,357	62.7	66.2	75.8	46.5	82.1
Foreign born..	685	320	143	47	175	2.3	5.0	2.0	0.4	4.3
Negro	10,034	1,823	1,463	6,309	439	34.0	28.4	20.6	52.8	10.7
Other races	291	28	109	36	118	1.0	0.4	1.5	0.3	2.9
Male	27,771	5,893	6,650	11,245	3,983	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	18,195	4,178	5,186	5,386	3,445	65.5	70.9	78.0	47.9	86.5
Native	17,555	3,888	5,049	5,341	3,277	63.2	66.0	75.9	47.5	82.3
Foreign born..	640	290	137	45	168	2.3	4.9	2.1	0.4	4.2
Negro	9,300	1,688	1,366	5,825	421	33.5	28.6	20.5	51.8	10.6
Other races	276	27	98	34	117	1.0	0.5	1.5	0.3	2.9
Female	1,766	523	438	699	106	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	1,017	387	330	213	87	57.6	74.0	75.3	30.5	82.1
Native	972	357	324	211	80	55.0	68.3	74.0	30.2	75.5
Foreign born..	45	30	6	2	7	2.5	5.7	1.4	0.3	6.6
Negro	734	135	97	484	18	41.6	25.8	22.1	69.2	17.0
Other races	15	1	11	2	1	0.8	0.2	2.5	0.3	0.9

than white and Negro. States reporting the largest number of foreign-born white prisoners were New York, Cali-

fornia, New Jersey, and Massachu-
setts.

EXECUTIONS

Not all legal executions which occur in this country take place in prisons and reformatories. In several of the states, prisoners under sentence of death are executed by local sheriffs. Therefore, complete data on executions are obtained by examining the death certificates which are returned to the Division of Vital Statistics of the Bureau of the Census. For 1943, in addition to the 80 executions reported by prisons and reformatories, records of 55 other executions were found, making a total of 135 for the year. This represents a decrease of 8.2 percent as compared with the 147 executions in 1942.

There are 6 states which do not have a death penalty, namely, Maine, Rhode Island, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and North Dakota. Of the remaining 42 states and the District of Columbia having the death penalty and the federal jurisdiction, the following

had no executions in 1943: federal, New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Indiana, Iowa, Missouri, South Dakota, Nebraska, Delaware, West Virginia, Idaho, Wyoming, and New Mexico. This leaves a total of 29 states and the District of Columbia reporting the 135 executions for 1943.

Table 7 shows the number of prisoners executed in 1943, by offense and race, by states. All but two of the 135 prisoners executed were male. Of the total, 76, or 56.3 percent, were Negro. Of all executions, 118, or 87.4 percent, were for murder, and 17, or 12.6 percent, were for rape.

The median age of those executed was 28.3 years and their ages ranged from 16 to 61. In fact, 15 were under 20 years of age. Twelve of these were Negroes executed in the states of New York, Ohio, Maryland, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, and Mississippi.

TABLE 6.—FELONY PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT IN STATE INSTITUTIONS, BY RACE, NATIVITY, AND SEX, BY REGIONS AND STATES: 1943

(Excludes statistics for institutions in Michigan, Georgia, and Mississippi)

Region and State	All Classes		Total		White		Foreign Born		Negro		Other Races	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
United States ..	27,711	1,766	18,195	1,617	17,555	972	640	45	9,300	734	276	15
Northeastern States ..	5,893	523	4,178	387	3,888	357	290	30	1,688	135	27	1
New England:												
Maine	178	10	177	9	158	9	19	..	1	1
New Hampshire ..	58	1	55	1	54	1	1	1	..
Vermont	107	12	107	12	100	11	7	1
Massachusetts ..	515	138	468	114	438	98	30	16	51	14	1	..
Rhode Island ..	141	15	124	12	120	12	4	..	16	3	1	..
Connecticut ..	365	39	324	31	276	30	13	1	67	3	4	..
Middle Atlantic:												
New York ...	2,323	113	1,497	59	1,361	54	136	5	704	54	19	..
New Jersey ..	964	124	617	92	573	86	44	6	346	32	1	..
Pennsylvania ..	1,347	81	844	57	813	56	31	1	503	24
North Central States	6,650	438	3,186	330	5,049	324	137	3	1,366	97	93	11
East No. Central:												
Ohio	1,569	120	1,038	86	1,004	86	84	..	531	34
Indiana	745	24	603	14	598	14	4	..	142	10	1	..
Illinois	973	85	671	60	649	57	32	3	301	25
Wisconsin	750	32	653	52	613	53	39	..	69	5	29	4
West No. Central:												
Minnesota ...	454	34	415	31	396	28	19	3	13	..	23	3
Iowa	407	28	393	26	392	26	15	3
Missouri	915	30	708	7	707	7	1	..	207	13
North Dakota ..	85	1	74	1	68	1	3	11	..
South Dakota ..	71	9	56	6	53	6	3	15	3
Nebraska	380	13	248	13	244	13	4	..	33	..	13	..
Kansas	403	42	330	33	325	33	5	..	68	3	4	1
The South	11,345	399	5,386	313	5,341	311	45	3	5,325	484	34	2
South Atlantic:												
Delaware	49	3	15	..	15	33	3	1	..
Maryland	1,415	92	487	32	479	32	8	..	928	60
Dist. Columbia ..	470	42	109	13	106	11	3	3	361	33
Virginia	1,353	71	433	15	423	15	825	53
West Virginia ..	377	15	290	4	287	4	3	..	87	11
North Carolina ..	777	63	353	32	353	32	423	40	3	1
South Carolina ..	366	56	183	14	183	13	33	43
Florida	742	48	388	18	336	18	3	..	454	33
East So. Central:												
Kentucky	846	32	333	19	533	19	364	13
Tennessee	639	32	373	13	371	13	3	..	366	30
Alabama	937	73	311	9	311	9	326	39
West So. Central:												
Arkansas	534	25	343	11	343	11	392	14
Louisiana	343	63	217	8	216	8	1	..	426	50
Oklahoma	751	45	619	33	613	33	3	..	301	18	31	1
Texas	1,539	49	935	33	933	30	33	..	554	20
The West	3,833	133	3,445	37	3,377	33	133	7	421	13	117	1
Mountain:												
Montana	153	3	143	1	133	1	19	..	3	1	14	..
Idaho	73	1	70	1	70	1	1	..	1	..
Wyoming	103	..	89	..	89	..	1	..	19
Colorado	631	19	489	3	478	3	10	..	34	3	3	..
New Mexico ..	214	6	179	6	174	5	5	1	24	..	11	..
Arizona	393	3	337	3	319	3	3	..	49	..	33	..
Utah	180	..	117	..	116	..	1	..	11	..	3	..
Nevada	113	3	100	1	99	1	1	..	16	3	3	..
Pacific:												
Washington ..	534	14	474	14	433	13	11	1	47	..	13	..
Oregon	310	6	297	3	292	6	5	..	10	..	3	..
California	1,516	62	1,361	43	1,151	43	110	5	214	13	41	1

TABLE 7.—PRISONERS EXECUTED, BY OFFENSE AND RACE, BY STATES: 1943

(Includes 55 executions in addition to those reported by state prisons and reformatories)

STATE	ALL OFFENSES				MURDER				RAPE			
	Total	White	Negro	Other Races	Total	White	Negro	Other Races	Total	White	Negro	Other Races
Total	135	56	76	3	118	54	63	1	17	2	13	2
Massachusetts	3	2	1	..	3	2	1
Connecticut	2	1	1	..	2	1	1
New York	12	9	3	..	12	9	3
Pennsylvania	2	..	2	..	2	..	2
Ohio	5	2	3	..	5	2	3
Illinois	1	1	1	1
Kansas	1	..	1	1	..	1	..
Maryland	6	..	6	..	4	..	4	..	2	..	2	..
Dist. of Columbia	1	..	1	..	1	..	1
Virginia	2	1	1	..	2	1	1
North Carolina	14	3	9	2	10	3	7	..	4	..	2	2
South Carolina	7	3	4	..	7	3	4
Georgia	17	3	14	..	14	3	11	..	3	..	3	..
Florida	7	2	5	..	6	2	4	..	1	..	1	..
Kentucky	8	6	2	..	8	6	2
Tennessee	6	4	2	..	6	4	2
Alabama	5	1	4	..	2	1	1	..	3	..	3	..
Mississippi	4	1	3	..	4	1	3
Arkansas	2	..	2	..	2	..	2
Louisiana	6	2	4	..	5	1	4	..	1	1
Oklahoma	2	1	1	..	2	1	1
Texas	4	3	1	..	4	3	1
Montana	1	..	1	..	1	..	1
Colorado	1	1	..	1	2	1	..	1
Arizona	7	3	4	..	5	2	3	..	2	1	1	..
Utah	1	1	1	1
Nevada	1	1	1	1
Washington	2	1	1	..	2	1	1
Oregon	1	1	1	1
California	3	3	3	3

MILITARY AND NAVAL PRISONS

Reports for 1429 prisoners admitted to military and naval prisons in 1943 who had been convicted of civil offenses were received from the following institutions: United States Disciplinary Barracks, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; United States Naval Prison, Navy Yard, Mare Island, California;

and United States Naval Prison, Navy Yard, Portsmouth, New Hampshire. Reports were also received for 1021 prisoners discharged from these institutions, who had served terms for civil offenses. The data presented in table 8 are not included with the data on the prison population shown in other tables.

TABLE 8.—PRISONERS RECEIVED FROM COURT, BY RACE, NATIVITY, AND AGE, FOR PRINCIPAL MILITARY AND NAVAL PRISONS: 1943

Race and Nativity	Total	Military	Naval	Age		Total	Military	Naval
				Total	1,182			
Total	1,182	677	505					
White	929	469	460	15 to 17 years.....	8	1	7	
Native	918	458	460	18 and 19 years.....	211	34	177	
Foreign born	11	11	..	20 to 24 years.....	582	352	230	
Negro	245	200	45	25 to 29 years.....	230	181	49	
Other races	8	8	..	30 to 34 years.....	89	70	19	
				35 to 39 years.....	39	25	14	
				40 to 44 years.....	11	7	4	
				45 to 49 years.....	8	5	3	
				50 to 54 years.....	3	2	1	
				Not reported	1	..	1	

JUVENILE COURT STATISTICS, 1943

The year 1943 is the seventeenth successive calendar year for which the Children's Bureau has collected statistics on delinquency cases disposed of by juvenile courts. The figures for the different years represent considerable variation in the number and identity of the reporting courts, but in general the coverage has grown from about 15 percent of the population of the United States in 1927 to about 37 percent in 1943.

More than nine tenths of the courts reporting in 1943, representing a majority of the population served by all the courts reporting in that year, reported under a state plan.² Of the eight states in which the courts reported in this way, Missouri and New York succeeded in achieving complete statewide coverage for the first time in 1943.

The other states in which the courts reported under such a plan were Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Utah, which had complete state coverage, and Ohio and Indiana, which had partial coverage. Increased reporting coverage in four of the eight states was chiefly responsible for the most recent rise in the percentage of the total population represented by the courts reporting.

The total number of boys' and girls' delinquency cases disposed of by the 399 juvenile courts that reported in 1943 is shown in the accompanying table, according to race. Separate data are given for each of the 90 courts

that served areas of 100,000 or more population; for the 309 courts that served areas of smaller population the data are given by state in which located.

During 1943, 125,488 delinquency cases were disposed of by 399 juvenile courts serving areas including 37 percent of the total population of the United States. These courts participated voluntarily in the Children's Bureau juvenile court statistics project and were not selected as being geographically representative of the entire country.

Nevertheless, analysis of the statistics on the delinquency cases disposed of by these courts produces some general observations that may be helpful in understanding the problems of juvenile delinquency as they are dealt with by juvenile courts.

Sex and Race

Of the 125,488 delinquency cases disposed of in 1943, 81 percent were boys' cases and 19 percent were girls' cases. The proportion of both boys' and girls' cases remained relatively constant for several years prior to 1941 (84 percent for boys' and 16 percent for girls' cases) but after that it gradually changed to the 1943 ratio.

White children were involved in 81 percent of the cases for which the race of the child was reported; Negro and other nonwhite children, 19 percent.

² The courts reporting under a state plan report directly to the state agency concerned with juvenile court work or probation service, which then forwards the data to the Children's Bureau. The other courts send reports directly to the Bureau.

**JUVENILE DELINQUENCY CASES, 1943: BOYS' AND GIRLS' CASES, BY RACE,
DISPOSED OF BY 90 COURTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH POPULATIONS
OF 100,000 OR MORE AND BY COURTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH
POPULATIONS OF LESS THAN 100,000**

Location of Areas Served by Courts and Chief City in Certain Areas	Delinquency Cases					
	White		Negro and Other Nonwhite		Race Not Reported	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total—all areas	74,439	17,400	16,667	4,443	10,417	2,122
Areas with 100,000 or More Population.....	64,178	14,864	16,026	4,285	7,926	1,662
ARKANSAS:						
Pulaski County (Little Rock).....	407	251	217	106
CALIFORNIA:						
Los Angeles County (Los Angeles).....	3,486	561	352	50	8	1
San Diego County (San Diego).....	1,219	489	70	17	6	4
San Francisco—city and county.....	564	262	89	31
CONNECTICUT:						
First district (Bridgeport).....	1,518	262	107	36
Second district (New Haven).....	1,499	252	139	35
Third district (Hartford).....	1,365	297	82	36
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA:						
Washington—city	1,283	99	1,569	253
FLORIDA:						
Dade County (Miami).....	450	120	171	82
GEORGIA:						
Fulton County (Atlanta).....	1,263	286
INDIANA:						
Allen County (Fort Wayne).....	591	132	38	18
Lake County (Gary).....	291	105	50	26
Marion County	1,203	343	377	96
St. Joseph County (South Bend).....	1,138	341	55	45
Vanderburgh County (Evansville).....	511	135	76	18
IOWA:						
Polk County (Des Moines).....	793	126	83	6
Woodbury County (Sioux City).....	354	143
LOUISIANA:						
Caddo Parish (Shreveport).....	163	103	130	40
MASSACHUSETTS districts omitted; race not reported						
MICHIGAN:						
Kent County (Grand Rapids).....	450	84	28	13	12	...
Oakland County (Pontiac).....	444	112	22	9	14	11
Wayne County (Detroit).....	1,591	312	695	128
MINNESOTA:						
Hannepin County (Minneapolis).....	898	359	13	7
Ramsey County (St. Paul).....	599	101	25	4
MISSOURI:						
Jackson County (Kansas City).....	1,097	347	295	59	6	...
St. Louis—city	1,383	553	763	268	32	35
St. Louis County (University City).....	409	110	80	18	3	2
NEW JERSEY:						
Hudson County (Jersey City).....	265	55	15
NEW YORK:						
Albany County (Albany).....	239	51	10	4
Broome County (Binghamton).....	93	36	1	1
Chautauqua (Jamestown).....	133	26
Dutchess County (Poughkeepsie).....	81	11	15	7
Erie County (Buffalo).....	858	145	78	33
Monroe County (Rochester).....	183	47	3	1
Nassau County (Hempstead).....	232	25	11	3
New York—city	3,451	782	1,743	468
Niagara County (Niagara Falls).....	179	53	4	5
Oneida County (Utica).....	256	61	10
Onondaga County (Syracuse).....	375	68	26	2
Orange County (Newburgh).....	107	12	10	2
Rensselaer County (Troy).....	162	33	3
Schenectady County (Schenectady).....	73	16	2
Suffolk County (Patchogue).....	118	14	8	2
Westchester County (Yonkers).....	296	37	74	20

**JUVENILE DELINQUENCY CASES, 1943: BOYS' AND GIRLS' CASES, BY RACE,
DISPOSED OF BY 90 COURTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH POPULATIONS
OF 100,000 OR MORE AND BY COURTS THAT SERVED AREAS WITH
POPULATIONS OF LESS THAN 100,000 (Cont.)**

Location of Areas Served by Courts and Chief City in Certain Areas	Delinquency Cases					
	White		Negro and Other Nonwhite		Race Not Reported	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
OHIO:						
Butler County (Hamilton City).....	717	231	101	41	9	4
Cuyahoga County (Cleveland).....	2,299	619	797	289	36	13
Franklin County (Columbus).....	622	352	190	106	68	4
Hamilton County (Cincinnati).....	2,494	603	735	253	25	7
Lorain County (Elyria).....	270	84	19	9	10	3
Lucas County (Toledo).....	342	102	44	15	3	...
Mahoning County (Youngstown).....	966	209	246	60	22	5
Montgomery County (Dayton).....	1,157	273	300	94	96	13
Stark County (Canton).....	137	34	20	3	...	1
Summit County (Akron).....	1,539	238	218	62	3	...
Trumbull County (Warren).....	333	90	46	17	4	2
OKLAHOMA:						
Tulsa—city	179	100	37	24
OREGON:						
Multnomah County (Portland).....	2,361	358
PENNSYLVANIA:						
Allegheny County (Pittsburgh).....	1,913	498	558	196
Berks County (Reading).....	220	14	12	2
Montgomery County (Norristown).....	210	16	21	5
Philadelphia—city and county.....	4,312	781	3,589	751
RHODE ISLAND:						
Sixth district (Providence).....	292	49	25	7
SOUTH CAROLINA:						
Greenville County (Greenville).....	175	32	78	15
TEXAS:						
Bexar County (San Antonio).....	2,181	757	150	94
Dallas County (Dallas).....	1,252	296	539	141
UTAH:						
First district (Ogden).....	1,171	145	3	...	2	...
Second district (Salt Lake City).....	2,251	344	16	2
Third district (Provo).....	1,425	287	1
VIRGINIA:						
Norfolk—city	458	215	421	86	...	2
WASHINGTON:						
Pierce County (Tacoma).....	306	110
Spokane County (Spokane).....	818	213	20	14
WISCONSIN:						
Milwaukee County (Milwaukee).....	5,686	844	301	50
Areas with Less than 100,000 Population.....	10,261	2,536	641	158	2,491	460
INDIANA: 28 courts.....	1,682	497	79	26
MASSACHUSETTS: 54 courts.....	1,787	200
MISSOURI: 112 courts.....	1,419	319	60	11	63	19
MONTANA: Yellowstone County.....	372	79	3	3
NEW YORK: 42 courts.....	1,563	301	31	8
OHIO: 57 courts.....	4,100	1,135	217	48	221	45
OKLAHOMA: Tulsa County—exclusive of city	92	37	2	3
RHODE ISLAND: 11 courts.....	339	95	11	2
TEXAS: Wichita County.....	420	196
UTAH: Fourth district.....	400	26	1
VIRGINIA: Danville—city	294	47	237	57

LYNCHINGS

1944

Two Negroes were lynched during 1944, according to Tuskegee Institute and the National Association for the

Advancement of Colored People, the two most widely recognized authorities on lynching. The lynching offenses were as follows:

Lynching of Isaac Simmons

On March 26, 1944, at Liberty, Miss., in Amite County, the Rev. Isaac Simmons, preacher-farmer, owner of 220 acres of land, was beaten and shot to death in the thickets near his home. The story of the lynching, as told in an affidavit by the victim's son, Eldridge, follows.

Some white persons in the vicinity wanted to take away some land from the farmer and became incensed because the latter hired a lawyer to defend his property. On the day mentioned, six white men drove to Eldridge's home and asked him to get into the car and show them the boundary of the property. They then drove him to his father's house and two of the men went to get his father while the others began to beat him.

The two men brought the elder Simmons back with them and ordered him to get into the car. They carried shotguns. After driving down the road a little way, they told the minister to get out. When he got out of the car, he ran up the road, and one man shot at him twice. Then four of the men ran in the direction his father had gone and the son heard shooting again.

The men returned and ordered the son to leave the state within ten days. Eldridge went home and took his sister to the spot where he thought his father would be. They found the minister dead, riddled with bullets, with his teeth knocked out and his tongue cut out. Eldridge then left his home and went to New Orleans, from where he filed the affidavit. A coroner's verdict stated that Simmons met his death "at the hands of unknown parties."

Following pressure from interested groups, the Department of Justice conducted an investigation into the matter and announced later that it had no jurisdiction in the case, but that it would turn over its evidence to the Amite County Grand Jury.

The grand jury conducted its investigation in October (the son's affidavit had been filed in August); but

four of the Negro witnesses who were summoned to testify did not appear. The jury indicted the six men. They were Harper Dawson and his sons, Roger and Mann Dawson, Nobel Rider, driver of the car, Narvel Rider, and John Brown, all of Liberty.

Nobel Rider was tried first because the case against him was believed to be the strongest. He was exonerated on insufficient evidence and the others were not brought to trial.

Lynching of James Scales

James T. Scales, 17, a trusty at the State Training and Agricultural School for Negro Boys, a reformatory at Pikesville, Tenn., was shot to death by a mob of white men in the yard of the superintendent of the school, on November 23. He had been arrested in connection with the slaying of the superintendent's daughter, Mrs. Gwin McKinney, and the wounding of his wife, Mrs. H. E. Scott.

The lynchers had obtained custody of the boy from a woman who was in charge of the jail during the absence of the sheriff, Henry Goforth. Scales was reported by police to have confessed to using an ax and a knife on the two women, resulting in the death of one. The group which took James from the jail was estimated at from eight to ten men.

Governor Prentice Cooper of Tennessee offered a reward of \$500 for apprehension of the guilty persons; the International Labor Defense offered a similar award and the Ministers Alliance also offered the same amount. The lynchers were never apprehended.

Other Deaths Cited as Lynchings

Several deaths occurred in the South during 1944, which, although termed lynchings by various persons and organizations, were not so classified by Tuskegee Institute and the NAACP.

Among them was the killing of Robert Lee, who was reported to have been fatally shot near Rock Mills, Ala., on August 14, by an angry mob of

white men, including a sheriff. Lee was accused of having killed a white jailer and had escaped from jail. Reports are that he was found in the woods by the men and shot.

Pvt. Raymond MacMurray was also reported to have been shot to death by police while being transferred from a jail in Gadsden to Birmingham, Ala. He had been arrested on a charge of rape.

1945

Both Tuskegee Institute and the NAACP reported one lynching in 1945. But the International Labor Defense reported three. The two victims not reported by the former two groups were said to have been shot by officers of the law.

The one lynching agreed upon by all three groups was that of Jesse James Payne, 20, who was taken from the Madison County jail in Florida and shot to death on October 10, 1945.

Payne had been arrested on a charge of raping a five-year-old relative of County Sheriff Lonnie Davis. The key to the jail, over which Sheriff Davis had control, was used by the alleged lynchers to free the man from the jail before they lynched him.

SHERIFF SCREWS CASE

Sheriff Claude M. Screws, Frank E. Jones, and Jim Bob Kelley, the latter two former police officers, were convicted by a federal grand jury in Baker County, Ga., in October, 1943, for the beating to death of Robert Hall, twenty-two-year-old farmer. The complaint alleged that on January 29, 1943, Hall was arrested in his home near Newton, handcuffed, and placed in the car of Sheriff Screws. During the early morning hours of the next day, Screws, assisted by the other two men, beat Hall about the head with a black-jack until he fell unconscious. His inert body was then dragged into the jail cell.

The case attracted unusual attention because it was one of two in the mem-

A grand jury called in Madison County refused to indict the sheriff. After pressure from interested groups, Governor Millard Caldwell called another grand jury, which also refused to indict the sheriff. The governor was then asked to remove the sheriff from his position, but refused to do so on the grounds that he had been elected by the citizens of the county. He said, however, that it was due to the stupidity of the sheriff that Payne was lynched.

Other Deaths Cited as Lynchings

The other two incidents cited by the ILD as lynchings were the killing of Moses Green, of Ellenton, S.C., on September 9, 1945; and Sam McFadden of Live Oak, Fla., on October 21. Green, a farmer who was at first reported as a Mr. Singleton, was said to have been killed by a deputy on his farm. The sheriff later told a reporter for the *New York Daily Worker*, in a telephone conversation, that one of his deputies had shot a Negro named Green, in a "bootleg raid."

McFadden's body was found floating in the Suwanee River on October 29. He was said to have been killed on or about September 21.

ory of the present generation in which white persons had been actually convicted for lynching. The three men were each sentenced to three years in prison, and each fined \$1000.

The verdict was appealed and in January, 1944, the circuit court of appeals in New Orleans upheld the verdict. The verdict was appealed to the United States Supreme Court, which on May 7, 1945, ordered a new trial for the men on the grounds that they had not been properly convicted under Section 20 of the Criminal Code, which provides that the defendants must act with wilful intent.

The court held, in a 5-4 decision, that wilful intent was not proved. The majority opinion stated that although

the crime was a "shocking and revolting episode," the trial judge had not submitted the question of willful intent to the jury with proper instructions, and that his charge was too broad.

Four separate opinions were given in the case. The majority opinion was given by Justice William O. Douglas and concurred in by Chief Justice Harlan F. Stone, and Justices Hugo L. Black and Stanley Reed. Justice Wiley Rutledge explained that he concurred with the other four in order that the opinion would not be stalemated, but that he would like to have sustained the convictions.

Justice Frank Murphy dissented because, he said, the evidence clearly showed that the three law officers "willfully or at least with wanton disregard of the consequences," killed Hall.

Justice Felix Frankfurter, joined by Justices Owen J. Roberts and Robert H. Jackson, held that the prosecution should not have been conducted under Section 20 of the federal law. They said that the law was confined "to attempted deprivations of federal rights

by state law and was not extended to breaches of state law by its officials."

They stated further that the defendants could have been charged, under state statutes, with murder or manslaughter, but "instead of leaving this misdeed to vindication by Georgia law, the United States deflected Georgia's responsibility by instituting a federal prosecution."

Section 20, which originated in the Civil Rights Act of April, 1866, and was placed on the statute book in March, 1870, provides:

Whoever, under color of any law, statute, ordinance, regulation or custom, willfully subjects any inhabitants of any state to the deprivation of any rights, privileges or immunities secured or protected by the Constitution and laws of the United States shall be fined not more than \$1000 or imprisoned for not more than one year, or both.

At a retrial of the men in Albany in November, 1945, an all-white jury freed them.

PEONAGE CASES

During 1941 the civil rights division of the Department of Justice began a campaign to clean up violations of the federal anti-peonage statute. Since that time the government has won about eight cases in the courts, secured indictments in several others, which were later quashed in the lower courts, and a few cases are pending.

Skrobarczyk Case, Texas

The second case to be won by the Department of Justice under the anti-slavery statute was that of Alex Skrobarczyk and his daughter Susie (both white) of Beeville, Tex. (The first such case was that of the *United States v. R. D. Peacher* in Arkansas in 1935.)

In March, 1943, Skrobarczyk and his daughter were convicted by a federal jury in Corpus Christi and given four-

and two-year sentences respectively for holding Alfred Irving in a state of peonage for a period of four years to work out a pretended debt. The woman was the first one to be convicted under the statute according to the Department of Justice.

The Negro testified that he had been severely beaten and kept in chains during a part of his period on the farm.

The defense appealed the conviction, but the circuit court denied the appeal because of failure of the defense to file a transcript of the record.

Castle Case, Miss.

In September, 1943, Donald Castle (white), of Lauderdale County, Miss., was arraigned on a charge of holding Rossy Wise in a state of peonage, having forced the man at the point of a gun to return to his sawmill to work

off an alleged debt of \$20. Castle pleaded guilty and was given a two-year suspended sentence by a federal court in Meridian, and fined \$500.

Bodiford and McGough Case, Alabama

Another conviction was won in the case against O'Neal Bodiford and Ralph McGough (both white) who were charged with holding Luther Carter in a state of peonage on their farm. A federal court in Mobile convicted the men, gave them suspended sentences of five and three years, respectively, and fined them \$500 each. Witnesses testified that Carter escaped from the farm, was seized by the two men, beaten and forced to return to work.

Gaskins Case, Florida

Another peonage case during the past few years which went as high as the United States Supreme Court was that of Charles A. Gaskins (white), of Wewahitchka, Fla., who was charged with holding James Johnson in a state of peonage or involuntary servitude to work out a pretended debt.

It was brought out at the trial in the United States district court in Pensacola in early 1943 that Johnson had left Gaskins's turpentine camp free of debt, and that in July, 1940, Gaskins met him on a public highway and had him arrested with the aim of having him returned to the plant.

The district court sustained a demurrer to the indictment based on the question of whether the white man had violated the anti-peonage statute before he had actually forced the victim to work. Testimony revealed that Gaskins had not had the opportunity to put the man back to work when he was indicted.

The Supreme Court, in January, 1944, reversed the decision of the lower court in an 8-1 decision, holding that it had erred in deciding that the anti-peonage statute imposes no penalty for an arrest to compel the performance of labor or service unless the person arrested actually performed the labor.

Johnson Case, Arkansas

In February, 1944, a federal grand jury at Little Rock, Ark., indicted Albert S. Johnson (white), of Cross County, Ark., on fourteen counts of peonage for having kept workers on his plantation by confiscating their ration books and forcing them to buy food at his store. The government also charged that Johnson had so intimidated workers on his plantation that they had slipped away at night, leaving their possessions and crops behind them. Fourteen Negroes were involved in the case.

In March, the plantation owner pleaded guilty and was sentenced to two and one half years in the penitentiary.

Pollock Case, Florida

The United States Supreme Court, in April, 1944, outlawed a Florida law enacted in 1919 under which a laborer could be convicted and sentenced to jail for nonpayment of a debt. The case involved Emanuel Pollock, who was arrested at the instigation of his white employer in January, 1943, for having accepted an advance of \$5 from J. V. O'Albora on a promise to do some work, and had failed to do the work.

When Pollock was brought to trial in Florida he pleaded guilty without advice of counsel and was fined \$100. Since he could not pay the fine he was sentenced to sixty days in jail.

By a 7-2 decision, the United States Supreme Court held the Florida law unconstitutional, calling it a form of peonage, contrary to the guarantees of liberty granted in the Thirteenth Amendment.

The court pointed out that Pollock was "without funds" and that he "did not understand the nature of the charge against him," except that he owed the money, which he acknowledged. The opinion added that "when the master can compel and the laborer cannot escape the obligation to go on, there is no power below to redress and no incentive above to relieve the harsh

overlordship of unwholesome working conditions."

Recognizing the right of a state to punish fraud, the opinion continued:

But when the state undertakes to deal with this specialized form of fraud it must respect the constitutional and statutory command that it may not make failure to labor in discharge of a debt any part of a crime. It may not directly or indirectly command involuntary servitude, even if it was voluntarily contracted for.

Cases Lost by the Government

The case charging Wylie Page and C. M. Weaver (both white), of Longview, Tex., with peonage for holding Robert Carraway on a farm as security for a pretended debt of \$63 was lost in the federal district court when the trial resulted in a hung jury in February, 1943.

The case of Wallace Adams (white), of Weldon, Tex., who was charged with holding Lonnie McQueen as security for a debt of \$30, was finally abandoned by the Department of Justice after an indictment was returned in July, 1942, because of lack of sufficient evidence.

The case of William H. Callan and James O'Neal (both white), owners of a turpentine still who were indicted in Dublin, Ga., for holding five Negroes in a state of peonage for non-payment of a debt, was lost in a federal district court, in June, 1942, when the jury found them not guilty.

In May, 1941, a federal court in

Chicago indicted two white men from Georgia, William Toliver Cunningham and Hamilton McWhorter, his attorney, on charges of peonage when they went to that city in an effort to have three Negroes returned to Georgia as fugitives from justice. Following testimony that the Negroes had been held in a state of peonage, the governor of Illinois refused to extradite them.

The Abolish Peonage Committee succeeded in having the white men indicted for peonage, but they had returned to Georgia before the indictment was returned. The government then presented the charges to a federal grand jury in the northern district of Georgia, but it refused to indict them.

The case of M. E. Von Mack, Evan McLeod, Neal Williamson, and Oliver Sheppard (all white), owners of the United States Sugar Corporation, was also lost by the Justice Department. The men were indicted in November, 1942, by a federal grand jury in Tampa, Fla., but their indictments were thrown out by a federal district court on the grounds that the jury box had been illegally filled because jurors had been drawn from only one county in the district. Another federal jury, sitting later, refused to indict them.

The case of Jeff Wiggins (white), sheriff of Glades County, Fla., was still pending at the end of 1946. Wiggins was charged with taking prisoners from the county jail and forcing them to work on his farm without pay. The first indictment was thrown out, but Wiggins was reindicted by a federal grand jury in Tampa in June, 1943.

OUTSTANDING CRIMINAL CASES: 1944 AND 1945

L. C. Akins Case

The case of L. C. Akins of Dallas, Tex., which turned on the exclusion of Negroes from juries in the South, was believed by Negroes to have set back the progress they had won in similar cases which went before the United States Supreme Court in 1940 when

the court held that the convictions of Negroes were invalid when it was established that the court in question customarily banned the serving of Negroes on the jury panels. The opinion was based on violation of the 14th Amendment.

In the Akins case, the United States

Supreme Court held on June 4, 1945, in a 6-3 opinion, that a lower court's conviction of the man was valid because one Negro had served on the jury.

Akins was convicted of murder by a criminal court in Dallas, in September, 1941, in the death of a white policeman, Leon Morris, and sentenced to life imprisonment. Akins testified that the policeman attempted to keep him from boarding a bus ahead of the latter's wife, that a scuffle ensued and that Morris shot him in the leg. Akins then seized the officer's pistol and fired one shot which killed him.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the International Labor Defense, and other organizations took up Akins's defense and appealed the conviction. The Texas Court of Appeals, in January, 1943, dismissed the conviction because no Negro had served on the jury and ordered a new trial, basing its decision on the United States Supreme Court's opinion in 1940.

At the retrial by a jury on which one Negro served, Akins was again convicted and this time sentenced to death. The state criminal appellate court upheld this sentence, and it was appealed to the United States Supreme Court.

Albert Baskett and W. J. Durham, attorneys who argued the case before the Supreme Court, contended that the lower court "deliberately, intentionally, and purposely limited the number of Negroes on the jury to one."

The majority opinion of the Supreme Court, written by Justice Stanley Reed, said, in part:

Fairness in selection never has been held to require proportional representation of races upon a jury. Purposeful discrimination is not sustained by a showing that on a single grand jury the number of members of one race is less than one race's proportion of the eligible individuals.

It stated that the court's past anti-discrimination rulings were based on the theory that exclusion of Negroes from jury lists in communities where many Negroes lived indicated discrimination "and not on the theory that racial groups must be recognized."

In their dissenting opinion, Justices Harlan F. Stone, Hugo Black, and Frank Murphy pointed out that, prior to the Supreme Court's decision in the *Hill v. Texas* case (1940), no Negroes had ever served on a grand jury in Dallas.

Their opinion stated:

In an attempt to comply with that decision, the jury commissioners who selected the grand jury panel were careful to appoint one Negro to a sixteen-member grand jury. . . . That fact alone does not guarantee compliance with the 14th Amendment. . . . Racial limitation no less than racial exclusion in the formation of juries is an evil condemned by the equal protection clause. . . .

If a jury is to be fairly chosen from a cross section of the community, it must be done without limiting the number of persons of a particular color, racial background, or faith—all of which are irrelevant factors in setting qualifications for jury service.

Akins was then sentenced to die by the Texas court on October 6. Following appeals from Negroes to Governor Coke Stevenson, the Texas board of pardons and paroles recommended commutation of the death sentence to life imprisonment and the governor abided by their recommendation.

Recy Taylor Case

The case of the raping of Mrs. Recy Taylor of Abbeville, Ala., by six white men, came into national prominence in October, 1944, when the woman reported the incident and gave the names of the alleged offenders. She told police that one night during the previ-

ous month, she was forced into a car, driven to the outskirts of town and raped by the men. One man, whom she identified as the driver of the car, Hugo Wilson, was held in jail overnight, but released the next day. The other five were later arraigned before the Henry County Grand Jury, which refused to indict them.

Negroes and their sympathizers throughout the country began to clamor for prosecution of the offenders and the Equal Justice Committee for Recy Taylor was formed to work on the case. In December, 1944, representatives of the committee called upon Governor Chauncey Sparks of Alabama. Later the governor called a special grand jury to investigate the crime, but it again refused to indict the men.

"Lower 13" Murder Case

In June, 1943, Robert E. Lee Folkes, dining car cook on the Southern Pacific Railway, was arrested in the death of Mrs. Martha E. James, white, in a berth on a pullman car near Albany, Ore. Because the woman's body was found with its throat cut in the lower berth, No. 13, the case became known as the Lower 13 Murder Case.

In January, 1943, Folkes was convicted and sentenced to death. The Oregon Supreme Court upheld the conviction in June, 1944, by a 5-2 decision. The prosecution argued that Folkes had confessed the crime and his purported confession consisted of a stenographer's memorandum.

Negroes took up the fight to save Folkes on the grounds that all evidence against him was not only circumstantial, but insufficient. Defense attorneys contended that he was convicted on oral admissions which had been extracted from him by "promises, beatings, illegal inducements, and the use of whiskey."

The conviction was appealed to the United States Supreme Court, which, in November, 1944, refused to review the case. Despite pleas to the governor of Oregon and other actions on his

behalf, Folkes was electrocuted on January 5, 1945, protesting his innocence to the last.

W. D. Lyons Case

In January, 1941, W. D. Lyons, of Hugh, Okla., was arrested, charged with the murder of a white man and his wife and child on December 31, 1931. He was found guilty and sentenced to life imprisonment on the grounds that he had confessed to the crime.

The NAACP entered the case and appealed the decision, contending that Lyons had been subjected to beatings and protracted grilling during which time charred bones, said to have been parts of the bodies of the victims, were rubbed over his body. The state supreme court, in June, 1943, upheld the lower court's verdict.

The court condemned the methods used by police to obtain a confession from Lyons, but ruled that he had made a second confession at a later time, which it accepted as admissible.

Defense counsel contended that the man was nervous and wrought up at the time of the second questioning because of his treatment at the first.

The United States Supreme Court, in a 6-3 decision in June, 1944, upheld the lower court's verdict.

Florida Rape Case

Three young men of Tallahassee, Fla., were arrested in August, 1944, charged with raping and shooting a white woman. The men were Fred Lane, 19, James Davis, 16, and James Wilson, 26. Because of reports that a mob was forming, 200 guardsmen hurriedly removed them from the local jail to the one in Gainesville, 160 miles away. They were convicted in the Gainesville court in September and sentenced to death at a trial reported to have lasted eighty minutes.

Newspapers reported that a loud speaker was rigged up outside of the trial court through which the results were announced to a large crowd of

cheering white persons. They further reported that threats from the Ku Klux Klan caused the withdrawal of the defense attorney while the case was awaiting appeal. In October, the Florida Supreme Court dismissed the petition for appeal and the three men were executed on October 9.

Scottsboro Case

Two of the young men in the internationally famous Scottsboro Case of 1931 were paroled from the Alabama state prison in January, 1944, but one was returned nine months later on a delinquency charge. Three of the nine originally convicted on a charge of raping two white girls in a freight train near Scottsboro, Ala., were still confined to prison at the end of 1945.

The case, one of the most widely known of its kind, was fought by Negroes and their sympathizers in the belief that the boys were innocent and had been "framed" on the rape charge.

Five of the boys, who were all in their teens when arrested, were exonerated in 1937 in the last of a series of trials which extended over six years. Four others were convicted, and the fifth, exonerated of the rape charge, was subsequently convicted on a charge of assaulting a deputy sheriff with intent to kill him as he was being transferred from one jail to another.

The two who were paroled in January, 1944, were Andy Wright, 30, who was serving a 99-year term, and Clarence Norris, 32, who was sentenced to life imprisonment. Another, Charles Weems, had been paroled in November, 1943.

The five Scottsboro boys who were exonerated following the trial held in 1937, were Roy Wright, Eugene Williams, Olen Montgomery, Gerald Roberson and Ozie Powell. Powell is the one who was rearrested and convicted on the assault charge. During his tussle with the officer, he was shot and has remained a semi-invalid since 1936 when the incident occurred. He

was released in the spring of 1946 and Norris was paroled in September, 1946.

At the latter trials, the case of the boys was strengthened by the reversal of the testimony of Ruby Bates, one of the girls alleged to have been raped. She declared on the witness stand that she and her companion, Victoria Price, had not been attacked by the boys, as they originally testified, and that the entire story had been manufactured by the arresting sheriff. Thereafter she became one of the leaders in the fight to free the boys.

The defense of the Scottsboro boys was conducted by the International Labor Defense for the first five years, during which time two reversals of their death sentences were ordered by the United States Supreme Court. Since that time, the case has been handled by the Scottsboro Defense Committee, headed by the Rev. Alan Knight Chalmers of New York. Samuel Leibowitz, now a judge in New York City, was their chief defense counsel.

Festus Coleman Case

Festus Coleman, laborer, of San Francisco, Calif., was convicted in 1941 on a charge of rape and robbery, on the testimony of two white sailors and a seventeen-year-old white girl, alleged to have been the victims. He was sentenced to serve 65 years in prison.

Coleman stoutly denied that he was guilty, declaring that he was a victim of a frame-up by the sailors in order for them to escape a statutory charge. The trial was closed because of its luridness. The defense counsel contended that Coleman had surprised the men in a compromising situation with the girl, and that the testimony concerning his guilt was so fantastic that he could not have committed the crimes of which he was accused.

In July, 1942, the California Appellate Court upheld the lower court's verdict in a 2-1 decision. The Coleman Defense Committee, which had been

organized to handle the case, then appealed to the governor to pardon the man, but the state parole board refused to recommend clemency for him three times, the last time being at its meeting in July, 1945.

The *People's Voice*, a New York Negro newspaper, published a story in September, 1945, telling of a letter received from a merchant seaman in Okinawa stating that he had talked with a white naval officer on his ship who admitted that he was one of the men involved in having Coleman convicted and inferred that Coleman was innocent of the charge.

The newspaper account stated that the writer of the letter signed his name and gave the name of the officer and the ship, but that this information was withheld for fear of the writer's safety.

SOME CASES IN THE SOUTH WHICH ENDED IN FAVOR OF NEGROES

Tennessee

Judge Frank L. Johnson of the 12th Judicial Circuit Court in Jackson, Tenn., in August, 1944, exonerated twenty-year-old Terather Bryant in the slaying of Walter Proctor, her white employer. The prosecution attempted to establish robbery as a motive for the crime. At the trial the girl testified that her employer had tried to force her to submit to perverted sexual relations with him and that in the struggle she shot and killed him.

She then gave herself up to the police. The judge held that she was justified in killing the man.

In Newport, Tenn., the Cooke County Circuit Court jury, in February, 1945, convicted a white man for attempted rape upon a Negro school teacher.

Mississippi

In Jackson, Miss., the state supreme court, in May, 1945, reversed the lower court's conviction and death sentence

imposed upon Willie Carter in the killing of a white marshal. In reversing the decision, the court criticized the Newton County Circuit Court for its ruling upholding the sentence in view of the fact that the man was a veteran and had been a patient at a mental hospital.

The Mississippi Supreme Court, in a previous ruling in May, 1944, remanded for a new trial the case of Johnnie Richardson of Pascagoula, who had been convicted by the lower court and sentenced to death on a charge of raping a white waitress. The opinion stated that "the testimony of the waitress was so highly improbable as to be scarcely believable, except, of course, to one who would simply prefer to believe it." It also accused the defense attorney of making "only a token defense."

In another ruling the Mississippi Supreme Court, in January, 1945, reversed the decision of the lower courts in convicting Henry James Moore of the fatal shooting of a white man during a free-for-all fight on Christmas night in 1943. The court held that the conviction was "clearly and palpably contrary to the evidence presented" and was arrived at "obviously because of passion, prejudice or corruption."

Georgia

The Georgia Supreme Court in March, 1945, demanded a new trial for Nernie Coker, a Tift County farm hand, in connection with the fatal shooting of his employer. Coker had been sentenced to death. The court held that the boy was in his late teens and had been forced to "confess" the crime by third degree methods.

Florida

The Florida Supreme Court, in June, 1945, reversed the conviction of Alfred Snipes who had been sentenced to twenty years in the slaying of a white sheriff in November, 1942. The decision was based on the grounds that a man may shoot in self-defense.

The opinion read, in part: "The accused is a Negro. This fact should make no difference in rules and practices applicable to the administration of justice."

Snipes shot the sheriff when he had forced his way into his home and beat him after searching for liquor and finding none. The sheriff was shot during the fight, Snipes testified.

The Florida Supreme Court also reversed a death sentence imposed upon

Simon Peter Taylor in July, 1945, in the killing of a deputy sheriff, and ordered the lower court to enter a second degree murder conviction. The sheriff was shot in the tussle which ensued when he entered the man's home and attempted to serve a writ on him for a furniture bill allegedly owed by him. The court held that the element of premeditation was absent, thereby ruling out a charge of first degree murder.

SPORTS

By Edwin B. Henderson

Author of *The Negro in Sports*

Negro athletes starred in many of the championship meets and tournaments in the armed forces all over the world. Quite a volume could be written about the records and performances of Negro athletes in sports and competitions denied them at home in peacetime America. Although among the champions reported during the past few years were the names of many who had been top rung athletes in college, amateur and professional games here at home, thousands of Negro boys who never had a chance to compete found opportunity to develop skills and talents hitherto suppressed and dormant.

Typical of the many camp situations was the athletic environment at Camp Lee, Va. Somehow, an athletically inclined "C. O." managed to corner some of the best track athletes of the race. Barney Ewell, Don Barksdale, Frank Dixon, and many others carried the colors of Camp Lee into the meets around the East throughout the war years.

Nor was the competition limited within camps to a "segregated" pattern. On football, baseball, and basketball teams, Negro boys and white boys in many of the camp situations were allowed to play across race lines and on the same teams. At Fort Huachuca, their baseball and basketball teams won championship series in contests with other camps.

In the fighting areas around the world, there was little or no color line in sports competition. As an example of the democracy of sport in foreign fields, Negro athletes won seven of thirteen titles to lead the 5th Army team to a championship in Florence, Italy. One hundred and seventeen athletes of the 92nd Division amassed

90 points to the nearest opponent's 49.

Many of these boys were mediocre performers in the States. Pvt. Ford of Detroit won the 100- and 200-meter dashes; Sgt. Thenlo Knowles of Santa Monica won the 800-meter; Pvt. Dillard of Cleveland copped the 100- and 200-meter hurdles; Pvt. Russell Jones of Lawnside, N.J., and M/Sgt. Lloyd Brable of Cleveland, O., tied for first at 6 feet 2 inches for the high jump title. The 1600-meter relay went to the Negro boys.

Another typical exploit of Negro athletes was the Inter-Allied boxing tournament at Rome in the famous Brancaccio Theater in December, 1944. Six Negro boxers were among the nine Americans to win championships. They were: Corp. Melvin Pullen of Dayton, O.; Pvt. Julius Woods of Buffalo, N.Y.; Pvt. Willie Thomas of Tampa, Fla.; Pvt. Ezzard Charles of Cincinnati, O.; Sgt. Andrew Roy of Charleston, W.Va.

One of the outstanding football players of the year on foreign soil was Big John Moody, who was hailed as the hero of the Mediterranean Area football championships. The above-mentioned events are but brief indications of the widespread participation of Negro sailors and soldiers in athletics in the many theaters of war.

BASEBALL

Nineteen forty-five will be remembered as the year of the beginning of the decline and fall of Jim Crow in organized baseball. After years of holding the line against American players of color, Branch Rickey, white owner, bucked the intolerant and weak-kneed magnates in organized baseball and signed Jackie Robinson and Pitcher Wright to play with his

Montreal Club team. If they make good, he will bring them to his Brooklyn Dodgers. For fifty years, Negroes had been barred from organized baseball.

During 1944 and 1945, Negro professional baseball enjoyed two of its most prosperous seasons. The games were played with regularity despite travel laws and limitations. Larger crowds attended. Players' salaries were increased. The games were managed better and Negro professional play measured well with that of organized baseball.

The signing of Jackie Robinson had the effect of an atomic bomb in Negro professional ranks. After the first loud howls of "stealing players" and a blast by Rickey against the loose methods in the Negro organizations, most of the managers saw a new era coming in which the national game would bring greater acclaim to Negro players.

Clark Griffith of Washington and other old-line baseball owners yelled loudly but the die was cast. The Negro and liberal public hailed the bold step taken by Rickey and expressed their willingness to chance the loss of money to some of the Negro magnates who have made investments.

Negro college conferences in recent meetings have indicated a return to baseball as a college sport.

BASKETBALL

Basketball in Negro collegiate circles was still the popular indoor sport. The season's play and post-season tournament play was as good as in prewar years. High school basketball is growing to large dimensions. Well-organized state athletic conferences are developing in many southern states. State championship tournaments are blossoming all over the country.

A professional Negro basketball team was able to register third in 1944 and fourth in the 1945 national professional basketball championship tournament.

FOOTBALL

Negro sectional conference football proceeded in 1944 and 1945 with little interruption to seasonal schedules. The Bowl games attracted the usual good crowds.

On the national collegiate scene, many Negro football players were heard of week by week as the printed dispatches were read, or listened to in radio descriptions.

Among the names much in the spotlight of radio and newspaper publicity during the past two years were Buddy Young and Paul Patterson of Illinois; Bill Willis at Ohio State; and George Taliaferro of Indiana. These were the players who merited serious consideration for All-American honors.

INDIVIDUAL SPORTS

During the past two years Negro sportsmen were singularly weak in golf, hockey, bowling, and many other of the lesser sports. Much of this has been due to the cancellation of tournaments and limitation of travel. In the Tam O'Shanter world's open golf championship Robert Barton Williams of Great Lakes was among the lowest qualifiers. In Riverside, Calif., Edward Strickland tied for fifth place in a tournament in which the top man was Byron Nelson. Strickland scored a total of 288 for the 72-hole course, 4 strokes under par, and won a prize of \$250 in the 1944 Beverly Hills Golf Tournament.

TENNIS

Private Lloyd Scott won the men's singles in 1944 and again in 1945. The Peters sisters of Washington, D.C., repeated doubles victories for both years; John Garret in veterans' singles, Althea Gibson in the girls' singles, Russell and Lillian Van Buren repeated victories in both years.

In a gesture of interracial good will, Alice Marble and Mary Hardwick (white) gave exhibition matches during the national tennis tournament and

teamed up with Negro players for other exhibitions.

Collegiate and scholastic tennis tournaments continued to be held and many courts were improved. With the return of veterans and with new equipment on the market a boom in the sport is expected.

Dr. Ivison Hoage, President of the American Tennis Association, died in 1945, and Cleve Abbott, the pioneer promoter and leader in sports in the far Southland, was elected president.

TRACK AND FIELD

Negro boys consistently hold championships in the sprints, middle distances, and the jumps. Barney Ewell, Ed Conwell, George Walker, and Buddy Young were sprint champions for 1944 and 1945, while Elmore Harris, Herb McKenley, and Bob Kelley scored high honors in the middle distances. Josh Williamson, Dave Albritton, Herb Douglass, and Don Barksdale were regular winners in the high and broad jumps. Ed Dugger remained king of the hurdlers.

The list of place winners in championship meets contains the names of dozens of outstanding Negro contenders. Many a point was won for predominantly white college teams by sterling Negro runners. Relays from the high schools of the northeastern states at the Penn Games and the meets in this section were loaded with Negro boys.

The mile and longer distances and the pole vault, with few exceptions, are the only events as yet seemingly safe from the record onslaughts of Negro athletes. Perhaps because of this, some metropolitan daily newspa-

pers feature in news stories or in pictures the milers, two-milers, and the pole-vaulters when in the meets often three or four of the finalists in the sprints are Negro boys.

NECROLOGY

Many great figures passed prematurely from glorious careers in the world of sport. One of the saddest departures was the death of Long John Borican. A gentleman athlete, a good scholar, and a painter of beyond average ability, he died at his home in New Jersey in 1944. Borican was best on the indoor tracks. Among his records still hung high in the list of American records are the following:

600 yards—indoors—1m.10.2s.
880 yards—indoors—1m.50.5s.
800 meters—indoors—1m.50s.
1320 yards—indoors—3m.1.2s.
Pentathlon—3304 points

Romeo Dougherty, father of the sports and theatrical pages in the Negro weekly press, died in Jamaica, Long Island, December 9, 1944. Dougherty covered and publicized the sports performances of Negro athletes from the beginning of the century until a few years ago. Besides being an able reporter and writer, he promoted benefit shows and spurred others on to public activity. He developed a large race and sports library.

Two other outstanding losses to the sports world were suffered in the deaths of Lieutenant Sidat Singh and Major Harold D. Martin who were both killed on routine flying assignments. Many other Negro athletes lost their lives in battle areas.

CHAMPIONSHIPS

BASEBALL, 1944

Professional Champions

Negro National League: Homestead Grays

Negro American League: Birmingham Black Barons

National Negro Champions: Homestead Grays

Leading Hitters

Negro National League: Frank Austin, Philadelphia Stars. Pct. .390

Negro American League: J. Smith, Chicago. Pct. .380

BASEBALL, 1945**Professional Champions**

Negro National League: Homestead Grays

Negro American League: Cleveland Buckeyes

Negro National Champions: Cleveland Buckeyes

Leading Hitters

Negro National League: Joshua Gibson, Homestead Grays. Pct. .393

Negro American League: Jethro, Cleveland Buckeyes. Pct. .390

EAST-WEST BASEBALL CHAMPIONS

1933 West 11 East 7

1934 East 1 West 0

1935 West 11 East 8

1936 East 10 West 2

1937 East 7 West 2

1938 West 5 East 4

1939 West 4 East 2

1940 East 11 West 0

1941 East 8 West 3

1942 East 5 West 2

1943

1944 West 7 East 4

1945 West 9 East 6

BASKETBALL, 1944**National Professional Championship**

Third Place—Harlem Globe-Trotters

Collegiate Championships

Southwest Conference—Livingston U.
S.C.A.C.—Mississippi Industrial College

C.I.A.A.—Lincoln University

BASKETBALL, 1945**National Professional Basketball Championship**

Fourth Place—Renaissance

Collegiate Championships

C.I.A.A.—Morgan State College

Southwestern Conference—Langston University

S.C.A.C.—Southern Christian Institute

NEGRO NATIONAL BOWLING CHAMPION

1944 and 1945: Cleveland Cox

FOOTBALL, 1944**Collegiate Football Champions**

C.I.A.A.—Morgan State College

S.I.A.C.—Florida A. & M.

Mid-West Conference—Tennessee State College

E.I.A.C.—Norfolk Division, Virginia State College

FOOTBALL, 1945**Collegiate Football Champions**

C.I.A.A.—Virginia State College

S.I.A.C.—Florida A. & M.

Southwestern Conference—Wiley University

E.I.A.C.—Fayetteville College

BOXING, 1944**AMATEUR BOXING****National A.A.U. Champions**

112-lb. class—Cecil Schoonmaker, Harlem, N.Y.

118-lb. class—Nicholas Saunders, St. Louis, Mo.

126-lb. class—Major Jones, Kansas City, Mo.

175-lb. class—Ray Standifer, Cleveland, O.

Heavyweight class—Sgt. Eddie Simms, Cleveland, O.

Chicago Golden Gloves Champions

118-lb. class—Clayton Johnson, Sioux City, Ia.

126-lb. class—Major Jones, Kansas City, Mo.

Middleweight—Collins Brown, Chicago, Ill.

Light Heavyweight—Ray Standifer, Cleveland, O.

Welterweight—Corp. Levi Southall, Camp Ellis

Golden Gloves Champions

112-lb. class—Cecil Schoonmaker, Harlem, N.Y.

118-lb. class—Clayton Johnson, Sioux City, Ia.

147-lb. class—Wendell Wilson, Harlem, N.Y.

Heavyweight—Roscoe Howard, Mount Pleasant, Tenn.

BOXING, 1945**AMATEUR BOXING****National A.A.U. Champions**

Heavyweight—Charles Lester, Cleveland, O.

126-lb. class—Virgil Franklin, Oklahoma City, Okla.

Chicago Golden Gloves Champions

118-lb. class—Bob Jarviz, Kansas City, Mo.

Light Heavyweight—Bernard Paige, Savoy A.C.

Heavyweight—Luke Baylock, Savoy A.C.

New York Golden Gloves Champions

112-lb. class—William Simon

147-lb. class—Wendie Wilson

160-lb. class—Charles Johnson

160-lb. sub-novice—Clarence Wilkinson

Golden Gloves Champions

112-lb. class—Francesco Garcia, New York, N.Y.

118-lb. class—Adolfo Calderon, New York, N.Y.

126-lb. class—Wray Carter, Savoy A.C., Chicago, Ill.

Heavyweight—Luke Baylock, Savoy A.C., Chicago, Ill.

BOXING, 1944**Professional Boxing Champions**

Lightweight—Beau Jack, Augusta, Ga.

Welterweight—Ray Robinson, New York, N.Y.

Middleweight—Holman Williams, Detroit, Mich.

Light Heavyweight—Lloyd Marshall, Sacramento, Cal.

Heavyweight—Jimmy Bivins, Cleveland, O.

(Duration champions not mentioned)

BOXING, 1945**Professional Boxing Champions**

Lightweight—Chalky Wright, Durango, Mexico

Welterweight—Ray Robinson, New York, N.Y.

Light Heavyweight—Archie Moore, St. Louis, Mo.

WINNERS OF THE RING'S MERIT AWARD AWARDED SINCE 1928

1936—Joe Louis

1937—Henry Armstrong

1938—Joe Louis

1939—Joe Louis

1941—Joe Louis

1942—Ray Robinson

1944—Beau Jack

TENNIS, 1944**American Tennis Association Champions**

Men's Singles—Pvt. Lloyd C. Scott

Women's Singles—Roumania Peters

Junior Singles—Carl Williams

Veterans' Singles—John Garrett

Boys' Singles—Clyde Freeman, Jr.

Girls' Singles—Althea Gibson

Men's Doubles—Cpl. Howard Mimms and Sgt. Fieullelean

Women's Doubles—Roumania Peters and Margaret Peters

Mixed Doubles—Delbert Russell and Lillian Van Buren

Junior Doubles—Carl Williams and Franklin Bailey

TENNIS, 1945**American Tennis Association Champions**

Men's Singles—Pvt. Lloyd C. Scott

Women's Singles—Katherine Irvis

Junior Singles—Franklin Bailey

Veterans' Singles—John Garrett

Boys' Singles—Wilbert Davis

Girls' Singles—Althea Gibson

Men's Doubles—Lloyd Scott and Louis Graves

Women's Doubles—Roumania Peters and Margaret Peters

Mixed Doubles—Delbert Russell and Lillian Van Buren
Junior Doubles—Fred Wilson and Wilbert Davis

TRACK AND FIELD, 1944

National A.A.U. Senior Champions (Outdoors)

100 Meters—10.5s. Claude Young, Univ. of Illinois
 400 Meters—48s. Elmore Harris, Shore A.C.
 800 Meters—1:51.8s. Robert Kelley, Univ. of Illinois
 200 Meters Low Hurdles—24.1s. Elmore Harris, Shore A.C.
 Running Hop, Step, and Jump—47 ft. 2½ in. Don Barksdale, Camp Lee, Va.

National A.A.U. Junior Champions (Outdoors)

1500 Meter Run—4m.17s. Rudy Simms, N.Y. Pioneer Club
 Running Hop, Step, and Jump—46 ft. 3½ in. Don Barksdale, Camp Lee, Va.

National A.A.U. Senior Champions (Indoors)

60 yards—6.1s. Edward Conwell, N.Y.U.
 60 yard High Hurdles—7.5s. Edward Dugger, Unattached
 60 yard Low Hurdles—7.2s. Edward Dugger, Unattached
 Running High Jump—6 ft. 6 in. Dave Albritton (tied) Unattached
 Running Broad Jump—24 ft. 6 in. Barney Ewell, Camp Lee, Va.

National A.A.U. Interscholastic Champions (Indoors)

60 yards—6.5s. William Mathis, Cardozo High School, Wash., D.C.

N.C.A.A. Champions

100 yards—9.7s. Claude Young, Univ. of Illinois
 220 yards—21.6s. Claude Young, Univ. of Illinois
 440 yards—47.9s. Elmore Harris, Morgan State

880 yards—1m.55.1s. Robert Kelley, Univ. of Illinois
 220 yard Low Hurdles—23.9s. Elmore Harris, Morgan State
 Running Broad Jump—23 ft. 4½ in. Ralph Tyler, Ohio State

Intercollegiate A.A.A.A.

100 yards—9.8s. Edward Conwell, N.Y.U.

A.A.U. Pentathlon

Winner—2852 points. Eulace Peacock, United States Coast Guard

National A.A.U. Relay Champions

400 Meter Relay (4 x 100)—44.5s. U.S.C.G. (Homer Gillis, Eulace Peacock, Don O'Leary, Herbert Thompson)

NOTE: Gillis and O'Leary (white).

1600 Meter Relay (4 x 400)—3m.25.5s. Pioneer Club (John Taylor, Bill Lubin, Maurice Callendar, Warren Bright)

Penn Relay Races

100 yards—9.8s. Edward Conwell, N.Y.U.
 Running Broad Jump—24 ft. 2½ in. Barney Ewell, Camp Lee, Va.
 Running High Jump—6 ft. 4½ in. Don Barksdale, Camp Lee, Va.
 College (Class) Relay Mile—Lincoln University, Pa.
 Scholastic (Class) Relay Mile—Cardozo High School, Wash., D.C.
 High School Mile—Relay—3:29.2s. (fastest time) DeWitt Clinton High, Bronx, N.Y.

Drake Relay Races

100 yards—Claude Young, Univ. of Illinois
 Running Broad Jump—Claude Young, Univ. of Illinois

Colored Collegiate Track and Field

C.I.A.A.—Winner, Morgan State College
 S.C.A.C.—Tougaloo College
 Xavier Relays—Winner, Prairie View State College
 S.I.A.C. Relays—Winner, Tuskegee Institute

National Senior Women's Track and Field Champions (Outdoors)

- 50 Meters—6.4s. Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute
 80 Meter Hurdles—12.8s. Lillie Purifoy, Tuskegee Institute
 Running High Jump—5 ft. 1½ in. Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute
 Discus Throw—101 ft. 7¾ in. Hattie Turner, Tuskegee Institute
 Baseball Throw—214 ft. 6 in. Hattie Turner, Tuskegee Institute

TRACK AND FIELD, 1945**National A.A.U. Senior Champions (Outdoors)**

- 100 Meters—10.3s. Barney Ewell, United States Army
 200 Meters—21.9s. Elmore Harris, Shore A.C.
 400 Meters—48.4s. Herbert McKenley, Boston College
 800 Meters—1:54.1s. Robert Kelley, Univ. of Illinois
 Running Broad Jump—24 ft. ⅓ in. Herbert Douglass, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Running High Jump—6 ft. 5¾ in. (tie) Joshua Williamson, Camp Plauche, La., David Albritton, Dayton, O.

National A.A.U. Senior Champions (Indoors)

- 60 yards—6.2s. Barney Ewell, Camp Kilmer, N.J.
 600 yards—1m.13.2s. Elmore Harris, Shore A.C.
 60 yard High Hurdles—7.5s. Edward Dugger, Unattached, Dayton, O.
 Running High Jump—6 ft. 6 in. (tied for first) Sgt. Joshua Williamson, Camp Plauche, La.
 Running Broad Jump—23 ft. 11 in. Barney Ewell, Camp Kilmer, N.J.

National Collegiate Athletic Association Champions

- 100 yards—9.9s. George Walker
 120 yard High Hurdles—15s. George Walker
 220 yard Low Hurdles—23.4s. George Walker

- 440 yards—48.4s. Robert Kelley, Univ. of Illinois
 880 yards—1m.55.5s. Robert Kelley, Univ. of Illinois

National A.A.U. Junior Champions (Outdoors)

- 400 Meters—Pvt. Hubert Gates, Warinanco A.C.

Penn Relay Races

- 100 yards—9.9s. Barney Ewell, Camp Kilmer
 Running Broad Jump—23 ft. 9¾ in. Eulace Peacock, U.S.C.G.
 440 yards, scholastic—44.7s. Cardozo High School, Wash., D.C.
 College 440 Relay—43.3s. U.S.C.G. (Peacock, Gillis, McCray, Thompson)
 Mile Relay (Class)—Morgan State
 Mile Relay (Class)—Lincoln University Scholastic
 Mile Relay (Class)—3:31.2s. Cardozo High School, Wash., D.C.
 Mile Relay (Class B)—Lincoln University

National Women's Track and Field Champions (Outdoors)

- 50 Meters—6.4s. Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute
 100 Meters—Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute
 80 Meter High Hurdles—Lillie Purifoy, Tuskegee Institute
 Running High Jump—Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute

National Women's Track and Field Champions (Indoors)

- 50 yards—6.1s. Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute
 440 yard Relay—53.6s. Tuskegee (Nell Jackson, Lillie Purifoy, Rowena Harrison, Alice Coachman)
 Running High Jump—4 ft. 8 in. Alice Coachman, Tuskegee Institute

Colored Collegiate Track and Field Champions

- C.I.A.A.—Morgan State College
 S.C.A.C.—Okolona Industrial School
Colored Collegiate Swimming
 C.I.A.A.—Howard University

BOXING RECORDS

JOE LOUIS (Joseph Louis Barrow)

Born May 13, 1914. Weight, 206.

Joined the United States Army on January 12, 1942. Won World Heavyweight Title at Comiskey Field, Chicago, June 22, 1937. Still recognized as world heavyweight champion.

1934

July 4—Jack Kracken, Chicago.....K.O.—1
 July 11—Willie Davies, Chicago.....K.O.—3
 July 29—Larry Udel, Chicago.....K.O.—2
 Aug. 13—Jack Kranz, Chicago.....W.—8
 Aug. 27—Buck Everett, Chicago.....K.O.—2
 Sept. 11—Otto Borchuk, Detroit.....K.O.—4
 Sept. 25—Adolph Wiater, Chicago.....W.—10
 Oct. 24—Art Sykes, Chicago.....K.O.—3
 Oct. 30—Jack O'Dowd, Detroit.....K.O.—2
 Nov. 14—Stanley Poreda, Chicago.....K.O.—1
 Nov. 30—Charley Massera, Chicago.....K.O.—3
 Dec. 14—Lee Ramage, Chicago.....K.O.—8

1935

Jan. 4—Patsy Ferroni, Detroit.....W.—10
 Jan. 11—Hans Birkie, Pittsburgh.....K.O.—10
 Feb. 21—Lee Ramage, Los Angeles.....K.O.—2
 Mar. 8—Red Barry, San Francisco.....K.O.—3
 Mar. 29—Natie Brown, Detroit.....W.—10
 April 12—Roy Lazaer, Chicago.....K.O.—3
 April 22—Biff Bennett, Dayton, O.....K.O.—1
 April 25—Roscoe Toles, Flint, Mich.....K.O.—6
 May 3—Willie Davies, Peoria, Ill.....K.O.—2
 May 7—Gene Stanton, Kalamazoo, Mich.....K.O.—3
 June 25—Primo Carnera, New York.....K.O.—6
 Aug. 7—King Litvinsky, Chicago.....K.O.—1
 Sept. 24—Max Baer, New York.....K.O.—4
 Dec. 13—Paulino Uscudun, N.Y.C.....K.O.—4

1936

Jan. 17—Charley Retzlaff, Chicago.....K.O.—1
 June 19—Max Schmeling, New York.....K.O.—12
 Aug. 17—Jack Sharkey, New York.....K.O.—3
 Sept. 22—Al Ettore, Philadelphia.....K.O.—5
 Oct. 9—Jorge Brescia, New York.....K.O.—3
 Dec. 14—Eddie Simms, Cleveland.....K.O.—1

1937

Jan. 11—Stanley Ketchell, Buffalo.....K.O.—2
 Jan. 27—Bob Pastor, New York.....W.—10
 Feb. 17—Natie Brown, Kansas City.....K.O.—4
 June 22—James J. Braddock, Chicago.....K.O.—8
 Aug. 30—Tommy Farr, New York.....W.—15

1938

Feb. 23—Nathan Mann, New York.....K.O.—8
 April 1—Harry Thomas, Chicago.....K.O.—5
 June 22—Max Schmeling, New York.....K.O.—1

1939

Jan. 25—John Henry Lewis, New York...K.O.—1
 April 17—Jack Roper, Los Angeles.....K.O.—1
 June 27—Tony Galento, New York.....K.O.—4
 Sept. 20—Bob Pastor, Detroit.....K.O.—11

1940

Feb. 9—Arturo Godoy, New York.....W.—15
 Mar. 29—Johnny Paycheck, New York.....K.O.—2
 June 20—Arturo Godoy, New York.....K.O.—8
 Dec. 16—Al McCoy, Boston.....K.O.—6

1941

Jan. 31—Red Burman, New York.....K.O.—5
 Feb. 17—Gus Dorazio, Philadelphia.....K.O.—2
 Mar. 21—Abe Simon, Detroit.....K.O.—13
 April 8—Tony Musto, St. Louis.....K.O.—9
 May 23—Buddy Baer, Washington.....K.O.—8
 June 18—Billy Conn, New York.....K.O.—13
 Sept. 29—Lou Nova, New York.....K.O.—6

1942

Jan. 9—Buddy Baer, New York.....K.O.—1
 Mar. 27—Abe Simon, New York.....K.O.—6

IKE WILLIAMS

Lightweight Champion—N.B.A.

1944

Mar. 27—J. Peralta.....W.—9
 May 16—S. White.....W.—10
 June 23—C. Shans.....W.—10
 July 10—J. Perrone.....W.—1
 July 20—J. Kogan.....W.—10
 Sept. 6—S. Angott.....W.—10
 Sept. 19—F. Dawson.....W.—4
 Oct. 18—J. Green.....W.—2
 Nov. 2—R. Garcia.....W.—7

1945

Jan. 8—W. Joyce.....W.—12
 Jan. 22—M. Berger.....L.—4
 Mar. 2—W. Joyce.....L.—6
 Aug. 20—L. Archer.....L.—10
 Aug. 28—G. Burton.....W.—10
 Sept. 7—N. Moran.....W.—10

1 Title changed hands.

HOUSING

OCCUPIED DWELLING UNITS

Source: Bureau of the Census

Dwelling units occupied by non-white¹ families formed 9.4 percent of all occupied dwelling units in the United States, comprising 14.1 percent of the occupied units in rural-farm areas, 8.4 percent in urban places, and 7.8 percent in rural-nonfarm areas, according to the census of 1940. (See table 1 for number of units occupied specifically by Negroes.)

In the group of cities with 250,000 to 500,000 inhabitants the nonwhite families made up 12.7 percent of all families, this figure representing the highest nonwhite percentage for any of the groups of urban places.

Dwelling units occupied by nonwhites represented a small percentage of the total for groups of places ranging from 5000 to 50,000 inhabitants. The lowest percentage (5.9) was shown for places of 25,000 to 50,000, with 7.7 percent occupied by nonwhites in places of 10,000 to 25,000 and 7.0 percent in places of 5000 to 10,000.

Nonwhites represented a higher proportion of the occupants of nonfarm dwelling units in rural unincorporated areas than in the rural incorporated places. The nonwhite percentage for rural-farm areas was 14.1 which is higher than the percentage for any of the groups of urban or rural-nonfarm places.

Dwelling units occupied by nonwhite families represented a higher percentage of all occupied dwelling units outside metropolitan districts than in the areas inside metropolitan districts.

Although the South contained less

than three tenths of the occupied dwelling units of the United States, it accounted for nearly three fourths of the dwelling units occupied by nonwhite families. Thus, 23.4 percent of all occupied dwelling units in the South were occupied by nonwhites, as compared with 3.2 percent in the West, 3.6 percent in the north central states, and 3.8 percent in the northeastern states.

The percentage of nonwhite was higher in each of the city-size groups of the South than in the corresponding group for the United States, but the same general relation was shown by the various groups of the South as in the United States total.

In the regions outside of the South, nonwhites were of greater relative importance in the larger cities than in the groups of smaller places or in rural-nonfarm areas.

State of Repair and Plumbing Equipment

Of the 3,293,406 dwelling units occupied by nonwhites, 1,082,123 were reported as needing major repairs, with 211,388 not reporting on state of repair or plumbing equipment. Of those occupied by whites (31,561,126), a total of 4,838,568 were reported needing major repairs, with 1,909,293 not reporting on state of repair or plumbing equipment.

Of those reporting, 630,318 nonwhite-occupied units had private baths and flush toilets (see table 2), while 17,506,532 of the whites had private baths and flush toilets. The nonwhite-

¹ Negroes occupy approximately 99 percent of the nonwhite-occupied dwelling units.

occupied units with private flush toilets and no private baths were reported as 184,693, while for the white-occupied, there were 1,203,354.

Of those reporting, 358,907 non-white-occupied units had running water and no private flush toilet, while whites reported 3,034,233.

Of those reporting no running water at all, there were 1,908,000 for non-white and 7,907,714 for whites.

Tenure of Home

In cities of 500,000 inhabitants or more the percentage of home owners was 27.9 for white households, 9.8 for Negro households, and 7.0 for other households, according to an analysis of data from the 1940 census. Home ownership was lower in this class of city than in any other.

Successively higher home ownership percentages were reported for the groups of smaller urban places, with places of 2500 to 5000 showing 51.0 percent as owner-occupied for white households, 33.9 percent for Negro households, and 35.0 percent for other households. The figures on home ownership are shown in table 1.

White households were most likely to be home owners if they lived in rural areas where home ownership was 55.5 percent, or small urban places, such as places of less than 5000 inhabitants, where home ownership was 51.0 percent.

Negro households owned their homes much less frequently than white households, particularly in rural-farm areas where only 21.0 percent of the Negro households were living in owned homes.

Negro households were most likely to be home owners if they lived in a rural-nonfarm dwelling unit (35.2 percent), although the percentage of home ownership by Negro households was almost as high in urban places of less than 5000 inhabitants (33.9 per-

cent), or 5000 to 10,000 inhabitants (33.1 percent).

The highest degree of home ownership (64.2 percent) was for households of other races living in rural-farm dwelling units. Home ownership for households of other races was also high in rural-nonfarm areas but was lower and not greatly different from Negro households in urban places of various sizes.

Households outside metropolitan districts were more likely to be home owners than those living inside metropolitan districts. This situation, however, is largely a reflection of the relatively low amount of home ownership in urban places with a population of 50,000 or more.

White households inside metropolitan districts are more likely to be home owners than those outside in the case of urban places of less than 25,000 inhabitants and rural areas. Likewise Negro households in rural areas and urban places of less than 10,000 inhabitants inside metropolitan districts are more likely to be home owners than Negro households in comparable areas outside metropolitan districts.

A comparison of the South with the entire United States reveals home ownership to be less in the South (40.7 percent) than in the United States (43.6 percent). However, home ownership is greater in the South for certain groups: white and Negro households in cities of 500,000 inhabitants or more (Baltimore and Washington, D.C.), and Negro households inside metropolitan districts, in places with populations of 250,000 to 500,000, 25,000 to 50,000, and 2500 to 5000.

Households of other races have a higher rate of home ownership in the South than in the country as a whole, except for places of 2500 to 5000 inhabitants outside metropolitan districts and rural areas.

Table 1.—OCCUPIED DWELLING UNITS BY TENURE AND RACE OF OCCUPANTS, FOR THE UNITED STATES AND FOR THE SOUTH: 1940

Source: Condensed from Bureau of Census Reports

Area and Size of Place (Number of Inhabitants)	Total	White Owner	Tenant	Total	Negro Owner	Tenant
United States	31,561,126	14,418,092	17,143,034	3,156,545	719,771	2,436,774
Urban	18,868,480	7,372,835	11,495,645	1,671,887	333,467	1,338,420
Places of 50,000 or more.	11,460,311	3,819,231	7,641,080	1,112,980	164,191	948,789
Places of 2,500 to 50,000.	7,408,169	3,553,604	3,854,565	558,907	169,276	389,631
Rural-nonfarm	6,590,687	3,494,220	3,096,467	529,115	186,096	343,019
Rural-farm	6,101,959	3,551,037	2,550,922	955,543	200,208	755,335
• Inside Metropolitan Districts	15,869,340	6,190,440	9,678,900	1,294,493	225,309	1,069,184
• Outside Metropolitan Districts	15,691,786	8,227,652	7,464,134	1,862,052	494,462	1,367,590
The South	7,870,355	3,597,292	4,273,063	2,386,775	576,028	1,810,747
Urban	3,152,473	1,270,169	1,882,304	977,310	221,239	756,071
Places of 50,000 or more.	1,659,111	632,906	1,026,205	532,246	90,739	441,507
Places of 2,500 to 50,000.	1,493,362	637,263	856,099	445,064	130,500	314,564
Rural-nonfarm	2,033,884	917,193	1,116,691	473,894	161,609	312,285
Rural-farm	2,683,998	1,409,930	1,274,068	935,571	193,180	742,391
• Inside Metropolitan Districts	2,208,723	937,642	1,271,081	634,851	126,189	508,662
• Outside Metropolitan Districts	5,661,632	2,659,650	3,001,982	1,751,924	449,839	1,302,085
PERCENT						
United States	100.0	45.7	54.3	100.0	22.8	77.2
Urban	100.0	39.1	60.9	100.0	19.9	80.1
Places of 50,000 or more.	100.0	33.3	66.7	100.0	14.8	85.2
Places of 2,500 to 50,000.	100.0	48.0	52.0	100.0	30.3	69.7
Rural-nonfarm	100.0	53.0	47.0	100.0	35.2	64.8
Rural-farm	100.0	58.2	41.8	100.0	21.0	79.0
• Inside Metropolitan Districts	100.0	39.0	61.0	100.0	17.4	82.6
• Outside Metropolitan Districts	100.0	52.4	47.6	100.0	26.6	73.4
The South	100.0	45.7	54.3	100.0	24.1	75.9
Urban	100.0	40.3	59.7	100.0	22.6	77.4
Places of 50,000 or more.	100.0	38.1	61.9	100.0	17.0	83.0
Places of 2,500 to 50,000.	100.0	42.7	57.3	100.0	29.3	70.7
Rural-nonfarm	100.0	45.1	54.9	100.0	34.1	65.9
Rural-farm	100.0	52.5	47.5	100.0	20.6	79.4
• Inside Metropolitan Districts	100.0	42.5	57.5	100.0	19.9	80.1
• Outside Metropolitan Districts	100.0	47.0	53.0	100.0	25.7	74.3

• Includes all urban areas from places of 2,500 up.

TABLE 2.—OCCUPIED HOUSING UNITS WITH PRIVATE BATH, BY COLOR OF OCCUPANTS, FOR U.S., NORTH AND SOUTH, URBAN AND RURAL: 1940

(Condensed from Bureau of Census Table)

Area and Color of Occupant	All Occupied Units	With Private Bath and Flush Toilet	Area and Color of Occupant	All Occupied Units	With Private Bath and Flush Toilet
United States	34,854,532	18,136,750	Rural-farm	7,106,559	741,817
White	31,561,126	17,506,532	White	6,101,955	735,927
Nonwhite	3,293,406	630,318	Nonwhite	1,004,600	5,890
Urban	20,596,500	14,709,984	The North.....	20,442,706	12,337,714
White	18,868,480	14,108,116	White	19,689,570	11,975,067
Nonwhite	1,728,020	601,868	Nonwhite	753,136	362,647
Rural-nonfarm ..	7,151,473	2,685,049	The South.....	10,278,204	3,082,946
White	6,590,687	2,662,489	White	7,670,355	2,874,115
Nonwhite	560,786	22,560	Nonwhite	2,407,849	208,833

PUBLIC HOUSING AVAILABLE FOR NEGROES

(As of July 31, 1945)

Source: Federal Public Housing Authority

Of the 769,131 active low-rent and war-housing units³ of the Federal Public Housing Authority, 145,584 or 18.9 percent, were programmed⁴ for or occupied by Negroes on July 31, 1945. The number of units available for Negroes increased by 2700 over the number available at the end of April, when such units constituted over 18 percent of all active units.

In the low-rent housing program, 46,522 or 35.1 percent of all units were occupied by or programmed for Negroes. (See table 4 for list of low-rent projects.) The estimated development cost for these units was \$219,182,000 or about one third of the total cost of the low-rent program. (Table 3.) In projects built under the United States Housing Act, 36.5 percent of the units were available to Negroes.

War Housing

The number of war-housing units, newly constructed, which were programmed for Negroes in completed projects as of July 31, 1945, was 39,233 family dwellings, of which 37,743 were occupied; 6798 dormitories, of which 5039 were occupied; and 2739 stopgap units, of which 1863 were occupied.

Editor's Note: Conversion management properties were existing buildings and large homes converted into apartment units by the Home Owners Loan Corporation and transferred to the Federal Public Housing Administration. They were leased from the owners. A total of 2601 of these units were made available to Negro tenants.

Occupancy in family dwelling and dormitory units specifically programmed for Negroes was consider-

ably higher than in all war-housing units of the same type of accommodation (96 percent contrasted with 91 percent for family dwellings, and 74 percent contrasted with 63 percent for dormitories).

In stopgap projects, occupancy in units programmed for Negroes was 68 percent compared with 71 percent for all stopgap units.

Editor's Note: Stopgap projects included about 35,000 trailers, together with portable family shelters, which were moved from place to place to meet critical need.

Negro occupancy of war housing is less concentrated in projects reserved exclusively for Negroes than is the case in low-rent projects. War-housing projects with Negro occupants accounted for 52.4 percent of all Negro occupancy in war housing.

Eleven war-housing localities had 3000 or more units available to Negroes on July 31, 1945, as shown in the following summary.

War Locality	Units for Negroes	Total Num- ber of Units
Portland-Vancouver	6,191	34,678
Detroit	5,619	13,270
San Francisco, San Pablo Bay.....	5,611	24,797
District of Columbia.....	5,176	26,730
San Francisco, East Bay.....	4,784	13,753
Norfolk-Portsmouth	4,320	18,309
Chicago	4,147	4,881
Los Angeles	3,825	20,938
Baltimore	3,359	11,421
Cleveland	3,209	6,031
San Francisco, West Bay.....	3,205	14,274

Thirteen war-housing localities with more than 1000 units programmed had no units available for Negroes.

³ Including conversion management properties.

⁴ All projects programmed were not necessarily completed or even under construction.

TABLE 3.—PUBLIC HOUSING PROGRAMMED FOR OR OCCUPIED BY NEGROES, BY TYPE OF PROGRAM AND CONSTRUCTION STATUS OF DWELLING UNITS ⁵

(As of July 31, 1945)

PROGRAM AND CONSTRUCTION STATUS	NUMBER OF DWELLING UNITS			Estimated Development Cost of Dwelling Units Available for Negroes (\$000)
	Total	Occupied by or Programmed for Negroes	Percent Negro	
Low-rent and war housing:				
All dwelling units	769,131	145,584	18.9	536,624
Dwelling units under management.	730,730	139,459	19.1	507,730
Dwelling units under development.	38,401	6,125	16.0	28,894
Under contract	19,168	2,925	15.3	15,328
Not under contract	19,233	3,200	16.6	13,566
Low-rent housing (excluding PWA limited dividend projects): ⁶				
Dwelling units under management...	132,602	46,522	35.1	219,182
War housing, including projects built under United States Housing Act, and transferred to war use:				
All dwelling units	636,529	99,062	15.6	317,442
Dwelling units under management.	598,128	92,937	15.5	288,548
New construction	548,758	90,336	16.5	284,133
Conversion management	49,370	2,601 ⁷	5.3	4,415
Dwelling units under development.	38,401	6,125	16.0	28,894
Under contract	19,168	2,925	15.3	15,328
Not under contract	19,233	3,200	16.6	13,566

⁵ Based on number of assigned units where definitely programmed for Negro tenants. For all other projects, with 95 percent occupancy or more, based on number of occupied units, and for projects with less than 95 percent occupancy, on proportion of total occupied units occupied by Negroes.

⁶ All units under management.

⁷ Data as of June, not available for July.

TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants ⁸
REGION I			
CONNECTICUT			
Bridgeport	Yellow Mill Village	1,239	88
	Marina Village	516	80
	Black Rock Village	176	16
	Success Park ⁹	1,000	50
	Huntington Homes	250	18
	Lincoln Terrace	150	8
	Canaan Village	324	32
	Knapps Highway	200	6
	Melville Avenue	200	4
	Stonybrook Gardens	400	42
(Fairfield)	Mayberry Village	500	1
(Stratford)	Nelton Court ⁹	156	6
East Hartford	Bellevue Square ⁹	501	..
Hartford	Charter Oak Terrace	1,000	1

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
(Manchester)	Orford Village	375	3
(Glastonbury)	Welles Village	200	1
(Rocky Hill)	Drum Hill Park	125	1
Middletown	Long River Village.....	190	15
New Britain	Mount Pleasant	340	4
	Ledgecrest	300	12
(Plainville)	East Mountain Terrace.....	200	3
New Haven	Elm Haven	487	326
	Farnam Courts	300	32
	West Hills	300	35
Norwalk	Washington Village	136	46
Stamford	Southfield Village	250	70
	Fairfield Court	148	4
Windsor Locks	Elm Plains	85	5
MAINE			
Bangor	Fairmont Terrace	150	5
Portland	Sagamore Village	200	4
MASSACHUSETTS			
Ayer	Devencrest	300	42
Boston	Lenox Street	306	..
	Orchard Park	774	93
	East Boston	414	1
Cambridge	Washington Park	324	1
	New Towne Court	294	3
Fall River	Sunset Hill	356	2
	Harbor Terrace	223	2
Hingham	Old Colony Village	78	2
New Bedford	Bay Village	200	95
Springfield	Mallary Village	300	4
(Chicopee)	Curtis Terrace	250	8
NEW HAMPSHIRE			
Portsmouth	Wentworth	800	12
RHODE ISLAND			
Newport	Tonomy Hill	538	17
Providence	Williams Homes	744	46
REGION II			
DELAWARE			
Wilmington	Southbridge	180	..
MARYLAND			
Annapolis	College Creek Terrace.....	108	..
Baltimore	McCulloh Homes	434	..
	Edgar Allan Poe Homes	298	..
	Frederick Douglass Homes.....	393	..
	Gilmor Homes	587	..
	Somerset Court Homes.....	420	..
	Lyon Homes	304	..
	Cherry Hill Homes.....	600	..
Frederick	Lincoln Apartments	50	..
Havre de Grace	Concord Fields	500	30

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
NEW JERSEY			
Asbury Park	Asbury Park Village.....	126	..
Atlantic City	Stanley S. Holmes Village.....	277	..
Beverly	Delacove Homes	71	24
Burlington	Dunbar Homes	90	40
Camden	Clement T. Branch Village.....	279	..
	Chelton Terrace	200	..
Dover	Victory Gardens	300	1
Elizabeth	Pioneer Homes	495	72
Jersey City	Lafayette Gardens	490	1
	Marion Gardens	462	4
	Booker T. Washington Apts....	234	..
	Hudson Gardens	224	2
	Holland Apartments	192	2
Long Branch	Garfield Court	128	36
	Grant Court	82	..
Newark	Pennington Court	236	60
	James M. Baxter Terrace.....	614	408
	F. D. Roosevelt Homes.....	275	..
	Felix Fuld Court	300	150
Paterson	Riverside Terrace	300	23
Trenton	Lincoln Homes	118	..
	Prospect Homes	120	..
NEW YORK			
Buffalo	Willert Park *	473	..
Hempstead	Mitchell Gardens	200	4
Lackawanna	Baker Homes	271	9
	Albright Court	200	155
Mineville	Grover Hills	100	1
New York City	Williamsburg Houses	1,622	33
	Harlem River Houses.....	576	..
	Red Hook Houses	2,545	146
	Queensbridge Houses	3,148	121
	Vladeck Houses	1,531	14
	South Jamaica Houses.....	448	340
	East River Houses.....	1,170	122
	Kingsborough Houses	1,166	552
	Clason Point Gardens.....	400	8
	Markham Houses	360	34
	Wallabout Houses	207	3
Syracuse	Pioneer Homes	678	52
Yonkers	Mulford Gardens	552	2
PENNSYLVANIA			
Aliquippa	Griffith Heights	50	..
	Mount Vernon	50	..
Allentown	Hanover Acres	322	1
Beaver Falls	Harmony Dwellings	50	..
Chester	Lamokin Village	350	..
	Fairground Homes	350	..
Clairton	Blair Heights	148	..
Coatesville	Carver Homes	100	..

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
Duquesne	Cochrandale	83	..
Erie	Lake City Dwellings.....	40	..
Harrison Twp.	Sheldon Park	200	11
Johnstown	Prospect Homes	111	51
McKeesport	Harrison Village	50	..
McKees Rocks	McKees Rocks Terrace.....	288	20
Midland	Midland Heights	280	12
Mifflin Twp.	River View Homes.....	450	73
	Monongahela Heights	342	163
Moon Twp.	Mooncrest	400	32
North Braddock	North Braddock Heights.....	200	48
Philadelphia	Johnson Homes ⁹	535	575
	Tasker Homes	1,000	100
	Allen Homes	1,324	1,300
Latrobe-Greensburg	Westmoreland Homestead	225	1
Pittsburgh	Addison Terrace	802	400
	Bedford Dwellings	420	405
	Wadsworth-Aliquippa	1,851	961
	Arlington Heights	660	108
	Allegheny Dwellings	282	60
	Broadhead Manor	448	46
	Glen Hazel Heights.....	999	212
Pulaski Twp.	Pulaski Homes	100	1
Rankin	Hawkins Village	182	48
Reading	Glenside Homes	400	8
Scott Twp.	Chartiers Terrace	200	47
Sharon-Farrell	Steel City Terrace.....	150	50
South Union Twp.	Crossland Place	40	..
Van Port	Van Buren Homes.....	400	38
Washington Co.	Lincoln Terrace	46	..
Wayne	Highland Homes	50	25

REGION III

ILLINOIS

Cairo	Pyramid Courts	240	..
Chicago	Ida B. Wells Homes.....	1,650	1,648
	Cabrini Homes	586	123
	Robert Brooks Homes.....	834	831
	Altgeld Gardens	1,500	1,413
	Wentworth Gardens	422	..
	ILL.—11208	250	232
	Jane Addams Houses ⁹	1,027	43
Danville	Beecher Terrace	50	..
Decatur	Longview Place	434	54
East St. Louis	Robinson Homes	144	..
Madison Co. (Venice)	Jones Homes	37	..
Peoria	Warner Homes	487	93
Quincy	Ball Homes	49	..
Rockford	Central Terrace	150	34
Springfield	Hay Homes	599	147

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
INDIANA			
Evansville	Lincoln Gardens	191	..
Fort Wayne	Samuel Morris Homes	88	34
Gary	Delaney Community	305	..
Indianapolis	Lockfield Gardens	748	..
Muncie	Munsyana Homes	278	114
New Albany	Crystal Court	18	..
MINNESOTA			
Minneapolis	Field Homes	464	119
MISSOURI			
St. Louis	Carr Square Village	658	..
NEBRASKA			
Omaha	Southside Terrace Homes	522	65
	Fontenelle Homes	284	108
	Logan-Fontenelle Addition	272	103
WISCONSIN			
Milwaukee	Parklawn	518	6
REGION IV			
ALABAMA			
Birmingham	Southtown	480	..
	Smithfield Courts	512	..
Fairfield	Fairfield Courts	90	..
Mobile	Orange Grove Homes	298	..
Montgomery	Cleveland Courts	150	..
	Paterson Courts	150	..
Phenix City	Frederick Douglass Homes	206	..
FLORIDA			
Daytona Beach	Pine Haven ⁹	167	..
Fort Lauderdale	Dixie Court	150	..
Jacksonville	Blodgett Homes	708	..
	Durkeeville	215	..
Key West	Fort Village	84	..
Lakeland	Lake Ridge Homes	160	..
Miami	Liberty Square	243	..
	Liberty Square Addition ⁹	730	..
Orlando	Griffin Park	250	..
	Carver Court	160	..
Pensacola	Attucks Court	120	..
St. Petersburg	Jordan Park ⁹	446	..
Sarasota	Newtowne Heights	60	..
Tampa	North Boulevard Homes	534	..
	College Hill Homes	500	..
West Palm Beach	Dunbar Village	246	..
GEORGIA			
Albany	Hines Homes	56	..
Athens	Broad Acres	126	..

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
Atlanta	University Homes	675	..
	John Hope Homes	606	..
	Henry Grady Homes	616	..
	John J. Eagan Homes	548	..
	Alonzo F. Herndon Homes	520	..
Augusta	Sunset Homes	168	..
	Gilbert Manor	278	..
Brunswick	McIntyre Courts	144	..
Columbus	Booker T. Washington Apts. ⁹	392	..
	Williams Homes	160	..
Decatur	Allen Wilson Terrace	200	..
Macon	Tindall Heights	444	..
Marietta	Fort Hill Homes	120	..
Rome	Altoview	94	..
Savannah	Fellwood Homes	176	..
	Yamacraw Village	480	..
MISSISSIPPI			
Biloxi	Bayou Augusta Homes	96	..
Clarksdale	Magnolia Courts	120	..
Hattiesburg	Robertson Place	120	..
Laurel	Triangle Homes	125	..
McComb City	Burglund Heights	76	..
Meridian	Frank Berry Courts	113	..
	George H. Reese Courts	97	..
NORTH CAROLINA			
Charlotte	Fairview Homes	452	..
Fayetteville	Cape Fear Courts	56	..
	Washington Square	75	..
	Daniel Brooks Homes	200	..
High Point	Mitchell Wooten Courts	142	..
Kinston	Craven Terrace	253	..
New Bern	Chavis Heights	231	..
Raleigh	Robert R. Taylor Homes	246	..
	Hillcrest ⁹	216	..
SOUTH CAROLINA			
Charleston	Anson Borough Homes	162	..
	Wragg Borough Homes	128	..
	Cooper River Courts	137	..
Columbia	University Terrace	122	74
	Allen Benedict Courts	244	..
Spartanburg	Hartwell Homes	150	..
	Spartanburg Defense Homes	10	..
TENNESSEE			
Bristol	Johnson Court	68	..
Chattanooga	College Hill	497	..
Jackson	Mary Lane Courts	96	..
Kingsport	Riverview	56	..
Knoxville	College Homes	320	..
	Austin Homes	200	..

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
Memphis	William H. Foote Homes.....	900	..
	LeMoyne Gardens ⁹	842	..
	Dixie Homes	636	..
Nashville	Andrew Jackson Courts	398	..
	James C. Napier Homes ⁹	480	..
VIRGINIA			
Hopewell	Davisville	96	..
Newport News	Harbor Homes	252	..
	Lassiter Courts	350	..
	Orcutt Homes	148	..
Norfolk	Roberts Park	230	..
	Oak Leaf Park.....	300	..
	Benmoreell	1,062	20
Portsmouth (Virginia Beach)	Nelson Place	50	..
Richmond	Gilpin Court	301	..
REGION V			
ARKANSAS			
Little Rock	Tuxedo Park	100	..
COLORADO			
Denver	Platte Valley Homes.....	77	..
KANSAS			
Junction City	Pawnee Place	40	..
LOUISIANA			
Alexandria	Carver Village	48	..
East Baton Rouge	Clarksdale	50	..
Lake Charles	Washington Courts	72	..
New Orleans	Magnolia Street	723	..
	Lafitte Avenue	896	..
	Calliope Street	690	..
	St. Bernard Avenue.....	744	..
TEXAS			
Austin	Rosewood	130	..
Corpus Christi	D. N. Leather Center.....	122	..
Dallas	Roseland Homes	650	..
	Frasier Courts	250	..
El Paso	Tays Place	311	33
Fort Worth	Butler Place	250	..
Galveston	Palm Terrace	228	..
Houston	Cuney Homes	564	..
	Kelly Courts	333	..
Pelly	Lincoln Courts	30	..
San Antonio	Wheatley Courts	236	..
	Lincoln Courts	342	..
Texarkana	Stevens Courts	124	..
Waco	Cain Homes	140	..

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants *
REGION VI			
ARIZONA			
Fort Huachuca	ARIZ.—2011	30	..
	ARIZ.—2012	100	..
Phoenix	Mathew Henson	150	..
CALIFORNIA			
Bakersfield	Adelante Vista	50	..
Fresno	Sequoia Courts	60	..
	Sierra Plaza	70	9
	Funston Place	150	10
Los Angeles	Cabrillo Homes	600	63
	Pueblo Del Rio	400	375
	Rancho San Pedro	285	44
	Aliso Village	802	173
	William Mead Homes	449	88
	Ramona Gardens	610	88
	Pico Gardens	260	40
	Rose Hill	100	2
	Hacienda Village	184	97
	Normont Terrace	400	2
	Channel Heights	600	88
Los Angeles County	Maravilla	504	50
Monterey (Fort Ord)	CAL.—4021	264	10
Oakland	Peralta Villa	396	186
	Campbell Village	154	91
Sacramento	New Helvetia	310	17
	Dos Rios	168	1
San Diego	Linda Vista	5,026	219
San Francisco	Westside Court	136	131
Vallejo	Mare Island	250	22
REGION VII			
WASHINGTON			
Seattle	Yesler Terrace	690	38
	Yesler Terrace Addition	178	6
	Rainier Vista ⁹	622	32
	Holly Park ⁹	1,000	42
	High Point ⁹	1,300	13
Tacoma	Salishan ⁹	1,600	186
	Lincoln Heights	400	1
Vancouver	McLaughlin Heights	4,406	196
REGION VIII			
KENTUCKY			
Covington	Jacob Price Homes	163	..
Lexington	Blue Grass-Aspendale Park	278	136
	Charlotte Courts	206	..
Louisville	Beecher Terrace	808	..
	College Park	125	..
	Sheppard Square	423	..
Madisonville	Rosenwald Homes	45	..
Paducah	Abraham Lincoln Court	74	..

TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants 8
MICHIGAN			
Battle Creek	Prairie View Homes	250	22
Detroit	Brewster Homes ⁹	941	..
	Sojourner Truth Homes	200	..
(Inkster)	Carver Homes ⁹	698	..
(Clinton Twp.)	Selfridge Homes	150	1
(Ypsilanti)	Park Ridge	100	..
OHIO			
Akron	Elizabeth Park Homes	276	268
Cincinnati	Laurel Homes ⁹	1,403	602
	Lincoln Court	1,015	993
(Lockland)	Valley Homes	350	..
Cleveland	Carver Park	1,287	1,278
	Outhwaite Homes ⁹	1,028	1,005
	Cedar Apartments	654	16
(Euclid)	Lake Shore Village	800	2
Columbus	Poindexter Village	426	..
Dayton	DeSoto Bass Courts ⁹	510	..
Hamilton	Bambo Harris Homes	141	51
Lorain	Fulton Homes	60	..
(Elyria)	Riverside Homes	40	..
Massillon	Walnut Hills	300	20
Portsmouth	G. W. Failey Square	135	112
Sandusky	Fairlawn Court	100	..
Toledo	Branch Whitlock Homes ⁹	376	..
	Albertus Brown Homes	134	..
	Port Lawrence Homes	195	178
Warren	Trumbull Homes	224	38
Youngstown	Westlake Terrace Homes	618	218
Zanesville	Coopermill Manor	324	22
WEST VIRGINIA			
Charleston	Washington Manor	304	127
Huntington	Washington Square	80	..
Mount Hope	Stadium Terrace	70	20
Williamson	Williamson Terrace	38	..
GENERAL FIELD OFFICE			
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA			
Washington	Langston	274	..
	James Creek Site	278	..
	Douglass Dwellings	313	..
	Stanton Road	300	..
	Carrollsbury Dwellings	314	..
	Kelly Miller Dwellings	169	..
	Barry Farms Dwellings	442	..
	Parkside Dwellings	373	..
	Hillside	440	..
	Lucy Diggs Slowe Hall	322	..
	George W. Carver Hall	206	..

**TABLE 4.—LIST OF PERMANENT PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECTS
MAKING PROVISION FOR NEGRO TENANTS (Cont.)**

(As of July 31, 1945)

Location	Project Name	Total No. Units in Project	Est. No. Units Occupied by Negro Tenants ⁸
MARYLAND			
Cabin John	Seven Locks	120	20
St. Mary's County	Carver Heights	72	..
	Carver Heights	120	..
VIRGINIA			
Alexandria	Parker Homes	110	..
	Ramsy Homes	15	..
Arlington	Paul Dunbar Homes.....	86	..
Arlington	George Carver Homes.....	44	..
RURAL PROJECTS			
ARKANSAS			
Lonoke	East Ark. Reg. Hous. Auth.	74	7
GEORGIA			
Thomas County	Ga. S.W. Assoc. Hous. Auth.	140	13
MISSISSIPPI			
Lee County	Miss. Reg. Hous. Auth. #1	186	21
	Miss. Reg. Hous. Auth. #2	30	3

⁸ This column used only for projects partially occupied by Negro tenants.⁹ Two projects.**NEW YORK HOUSING BILL**

In June, 1943, the Board of Estimate of New York City signed a contract with the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company assuring it tax exemption for a low-rent housing project, to be called Stuyvesant Town. The project was to house 24,000 families and was to be built in what was known as the Gas House District downtown on the East Side. Upon learning of the statement by an insurance company official that Negroes would be barred from living in the development, Negroes and their white sympathizers fought its construction in an effort to have the policy of discrimination discarded.

Suits were filed by several persons in an attempt to restrain the city from proceeding with plans to permit the area to be razed to make way for the housing project. One, filed by Eliot D. Pratt (white), based its argument on the grounds that the development was not for public use in that it denied

Negroes the opportunity to occupy units in it, and that the contract signed by the city was unconstitutional in that it gave the insurance company the right of eminent domain and a 25-year tax exemption.

The New York Supreme Court ruled against the plaintiff in March, 1944. Justice Bernard L. Shientag handed down the decision, in which he stated, on the question of racial discrimination, that it was not properly before the court at the time, because it was based only on the expressed intention of an official of the company and was not an actuality, since the company's directors had taken no position in the matter.

He pointed out further that in a previous suit brought by a taxpayer in the area, the court of appeals had upheld a New York Supreme Court ruling that the Redevelopment Companies Law, under which the contract originated, was constitutional and that the United States Supreme Court had re-

fused to review the 4-2 decision. (The United States Supreme Court announced its refusal in 1944.)

Following the court decisions on the matter, the New York City Council passed an ordinance, in June, 1944, introduced by Councilmen Benjamin J. Davis and Stanley Isaacs (white), which prohibited the city from granting tax exemption to any project prac-

ticing discrimination. The measure was not retroactive, so Stuyvesant Town was not affected.

The insurance company, shortly afterwards, announced its plan to build a low-rent housing project in Harlem in a Negro-Italian-Spanish neighborhood to be called Riverton, which would house 3400 families.

ORGANIZATIONS

RACIAL POLICIES OF ORGANIZATIONS

In a survey made by the American Civil Liberties Union, released in January, 1946, out of 141 semipublic organizations, 93 reported that they had no racial segregation or discrimination as a declared policy. The survey noted, however, that although these associations have no declared policy of segregation or discrimination, they "yield to local customs in excluding or segregating Negroes in their municipal and state chapters."

Of the 93 reporting no segregation, 12 reported no Negro members, and only 9 had as many as 100 members. But 29 of them reported Negroes as serving on their governing boards and 19 as having them serving on their paid staffs. Forty organizations reported segregation of Negroes in local or state chapters.

The total membership of the 93 organizations reporting no discrimination is less than a million as compared with memberships totaling almost forty million in the 40 national organizations which segregated in local or state chapters.

Of the 93 national organizations which profess no discrimination, the Civil Liberties Union comments:

Despite professions of equality in admission to membership, one of three facts, or all, are true of a large majority of the associations: (1) Negroes are discouraged from participation; (2) few are qualified for membership in the large number of highly specialized associations; or (3) they are not interested in seeking membership in the general associations.

Concerning the survey, the union

states further: "Many of these organizations have recognized the need for more Negroes in their membership. One has provided five scholarships for Negro applicants, but only two have applied. Lack of technical training explains why there are few Negro members in many national scientific associations." It adds that "lack of hospitality to Negro members accounts for low membership in some associations."

The National Council of the Y.M.C.A. was reported as among the three large organizations which have complete segregation. The other two are the American War Mothers and Veterans of Foreign Wars. The latter was reported as having separate branches for Negroes and not admitting them as members of the national organization.

The two organizations which reported excluding Negroes altogether were the Association of Professional Ball Players of America, and the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

The organizations were classified into five groups, which follow with their headquarters, enrollment, and number of Negro members.

The number of members of each organization where given is indicated, followed by the number of Negro members reported. A question mark after the total membership (in 52 agencies) indicates that the organization did not report the number of Negro members because no record of race is kept. A double question mark indicates that no membership figures were given. The failure to report Negro membership may indicate either a policy of complete acceptance or that the issue has not arisen, and if it did, might

require a different classification. When no Negro members are reported (as in

12 agencies), it may be assumed that none has applied.

CLASS A (93 ORGANIZATIONS)

(With no professed segregation or discrimination)

Classification A is a group consisting of organizations which have no policy of racial discrimination in admission to membership. Where these national associations have nationally controlled local chapters, they profess no discrimination in them, even in the South. Some have both individual

membership with no discrimination, and also uncontrolled affiliates, some of which in the South are entirely Negro. Where segregation is practiced in controlled local chapters or state sections, the agency is classified under B.

Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
Educational			
American Association for Adult Education.....	New York	2,423	25
American Association of Junior Colleges.....	Washington	600	20
American Association of University Professors.....	Washington	16,000	300
American College Publicity Association.....	Bloomington, Ind.	437	15
American Education Fellowship.....	New York	8,000	?
American Labor Education Service.....	New York	1,000	?
American Philological Association.....	Brunswick, Me.	966	1
Association of American Law Schools.....	Columbus, O.	94	2
National Education Association.....	Washington	275,000	?
Workers Education Bureau of America.....	New York	150	?
Public and Social Welfare			
American Association of Social Workers.....	New York	10,300	?
American Civil Liberties Union.....	New York	6,500	?
American Sociological Society.....	Washington	1,200	15
American Women's Voluntary Services Inc.....	New York	300,000	3,066
League for Industrial Democracy.....	New York	1,500	25
National Civil Service League.....	New York	3,000	?
National Consumers League.....	Cleveland	1,500	?
National Conference of Social Work.....	Columbus, O.	5,000	?
National Farmers Union.....	Denver	165,000	?
National Municipal League.....	New York	?	?
National Organization for Public Health Nursing.....	New York	11,041	?
(reports some doubt as to nondiscrimination in three Southern agencies)			
National Recreation Association.....	New York	2,000	?
People's Lobby.....	Washington	4,350	?
Planned Parenthood Federation of America.....	New York	3,500	?
Southern Conference of Human Welfare.....	Nashville	3,000	1/5th
Union for Democratic Action.....	New York	5,000	?
Workers Defense League.....	New York	9,000	100s
Social Science			
American Academy of Political and Social Science..	Philadelphia	10,000	?
American Geographical Society.....	New York	4,000	?
American Historical Association.....	Washington	3,528	?
The American Philosophical Association.....	Middletown, Conn....	850	?
American Political Science Association.....	Evanston	3,000	8
Association of American Geographers.....	Minneapolis	205	0
Arts			
American Institute of Graphic Arts.....	New York	620	0
American Society of Landscape Architects.....	Boston	439	0
Authors League of America Inc.....	New York	over 4,000	?
National Sculpture Society.....	New York	300	?
Society of Illustrators Inc.....	New York	400	1

ORGANIZATIONS

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Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
Veterans			
American Gold Star Mothers Inc.....	Washington	8,000	?
American Veterans Committee.....	New York	6,000	?
Army & Navy Union USA.....	Atlantic City	25,000	2,000
Health and Medical			
American Heart Association Inc.....	New York	2,420	?
American Hospital Association.....	Illinois	3,200 institutional, 2,200 personal	?
American Osteopathic Association.....	Chicago	7,300	?
American Medical Women's Assn. Inc.....	New York	2,000	?
American Pharmaceutical Association.....	Washington	6,500	?
American Physiotherapy Association.....	New York	2,100	?
American Psychiatric Association.....	New York	3,387	10
American Public Health Association.....	New York	1,872	?
Association of Military Surgeons.....	Washington	10,300	about 200
Conservation and Wildlife			
American Forestry Association.....	Washington	14,000	?
American Nature Study Society.....	Connecticut	350	?
American Ornithologists Union.....	Columbus	2,000	?
American Society of Naturalists.....	Ann Arbor	550	0
American Society of Zoologists.....	Chicago	1,062	under 10
American Wildlife Institute.....	Washington	700	?
National Audubon Society.....	New York	7,500	?
Society of American Foresters.....	Washington	4,200	0
Professional and Scientific			
Actuarial Society of America.....	New York	810	0
American Astronomical Society.....	Evanston, Ill.	620	0
American Chemical Society.....	Washington	41,000	?
American Economic Association.....	New York	5,000	?
American Genetic Association.....	Washington	3,500	?
American Institute of Chemists.....	New York	2,000	?
American Institute of Consulting Engineers.....	New York	130	0
American Institute of Electrical Engineers.....	New York	22,000	2-3
American Institute of Physics.....	New York	6,000	?
American Law Institute.....	Philadelphia	?	?
American Meteorological Society.....	Massachusetts	2,300	?
American Society of Agricultural Engineers.....	St. Joseph, Mich.	1,448	0
American Society of Agronomy.....	Morgantown, W.Va.	1,250	2
Federal Bar Association.....	Washington, D.C. ..	2,500	3
Geological Society of America.....	New York	814	0
Institute of Radio Engineers.....	New York	13,138	?
International Chiropractors Assn.....	Iowa	950	1
National Academy of Sciences.....	Washington	350	?
National Assn. of Orthodontists.....	St. Paul	730	0
National Lawyers Guild.....	New York	3,000	100
National Shorthand Reporters Assn.....	New York	1,500	0
Society of American Bacteriologists.....	Washington	2,500	about 3
Society of Motion Picture Engineers.....	New York	1,614	0
General Religious Agencies			
American Friends Service Committee.....	Philadelphia	?	?
American Missionary Association.....	New York	1,000,000	9,000
Council of Church Boards of Education.....	Washington	96	6
National Council of Catholic Men.....	Washington...not membership org.	?	?
National Religion and Labor Foundation.....	New Haven	?	?
United Council of Church Women.....	New York	900	?
Business			
American Institute of Accountants.....	New York	8,203	5
American Management Association.....	New York	8,400	?
American Society of Planning Officials.....	Chicago	1,200	?
National Association of Manufacturers.....	New York.....	12,000 firms	?
Peace			
Fellowship of Reconciliation.....	New York	15,000	250
National Council for Prevention of War.....	Washington	125	6
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom	Washington	10,000	?

CLASS B (40 ORGANIZATIONS)

(With segregation in local or state chapters)

Classification B represents a group of organizations which do not discriminate at the national level, but which have controlled local chapters or state sections where segregation exists, especially in the South. In practically all of these agencies, Negroes

may join as national members, serve on national boards, and as delegates to national conventions. A number of organizations do not have national membership as such, all members being affiliated through state or local chapters.

Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
American Association of University Women.....	Washington	73,000	?
American Dental Association.....	Chicago	60,665	?
American Farm Bureau Federation.....	Chicago	state organizations	?
American Federation of Arts.....	Washington	2,500	?
American Legion	Indianapolis	1,417,446	?
American Library Association.....	Chicago	15,000	?
American Medical Association.....	Chicago	124,000	?
American Nurses Association.....	New York	178,415	?
American Optometric Association.....	Minneapolis	membership through state organizations only	?
American Red Cross.....	Washington	30,000,000	?
American Society for the Hard of Hearing.....	Washington	7,500	?
American Statistical Association.....	Washington	3,100	?
American Vocational Association.....	Washington	25,000	1,125
Anti-Saloon League	Washington	not membership organization; affiliates	?
Boys Club of America Inc.....	New York	250,000	?
Boy Rangers of America Inc.....	New York	12-15 lodges	?
Boy Scouts of America.....	New York	2,000,000	100,000
Camp Fire Girls Inc.....	New York	350,000	?
Cooperative League of USA.....	Washington	1,500,000	?
Disabled American Veterans.....	Cincinnati	60,000	3,000
Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America.....	New York	26 denominations	?
Friends General Conference.....	Philadelphia	17,000	8
Girl Scouts	New York	675,313	17,517
Military Order of the Purple Heart.....	Lansing, Mich.	800,000	?
Music Teachers National Association.....	Texas	500	?
National Amateur Athletic Union of US.....	New York	200,000	?
National Association of Legal Aid Organizations.....	New York	?	?
National Committee for Mental Hygiene.....	New York	733	1
National Congress of Parents and Teachers.....	Chicago	3,500,000	?
National Federation of Settlements.....	New York	178 agencies, 300 individuals	?
National Health Council.....	New York	22	?
National Kindergarten Association.....	New York	?	?
National League of Nursing Education.....	New York	7,687	?
National League of Teachers Associations.....	Cincinnati	organizations	?
National Rifle Association of America.....	Washington	1,000s	?
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union.....	Evanston, Ill.	250,000	?
United Council of Church Women.....	New York	400,000	1,000
Veterans of Foreign Wars USA, Ladies' Auxiliary.....	New York	900 groups	?
World Alliance for International Friendship Through the Churches.....	Kansas City, Mo....	150,000	1,000
Young Women's Christian Association.....	New York	18,000	?
	New York	622,000	?

CLASS C

(With discrimination, not segregation)

A group of organizations which in one way or another definitely discriminate against Negroes, even while professing a policy of nondiscrimina-

tion, by such devices as requiring applicants to be sponsored by other members and by requiring approval by a membership committee.

Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
American Bar Association.....	Chicago	32,500	at least 2
American Veterinary Medical Association.....	Chicago	8,500	?
National Association of Women Lawyers.....	Detroit	1,200	4

CLASS D

(With complete segregation)

A group of organizations which and which do not admit them as members of the national organization.

Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
American War Mothers.....	Kansas City, Mo....	?	?
National Council of Y.M.C.A.....	New York	1,200,777	?
Veterans of Foreign Wars.....	Kansas City, Mo....	450,000	?

CLASS E

(A group of organizations which exclude Negroes altogether)

Organization	Home Office	No. of Members	Negro Members
Association of Professional Ball Players of America	Los Angeles	4,327	0
General Federation of Women's Clubs.....	Washington	2,500,000	0

INTERRACIAL AGENCIES

During the past two to three years the number of interracial organizations, usually calling themselves committees or commissions, has more than tripled. Although there have been a number of national associations in existence over a decade or more which have striven to promote better racial relations, there were few such state and municipal groups organized up to the beginning of 1943.

The rapid growth of these organizations was begun in 1943, immediately after several flagrant and dangerous race riots had occurred: namely in Detroit, New York, Beaumont, Tex.,

and smaller ones in other cities.

The creation of the emergency Federal Fair Employment Practice Committee, set up by President Roosevelt in 1941, which functioned until the spring of 1945, was also a stimulant to the formation of interracial committees throughout the country.

At the end of 1943, the American Council on Race Relations listed 17 state-wide interracial committees and approximately 81 municipal or local committees. But at the end of 1944, this council had listed from three to four times that number in each category.

AGENCIES IN RACE RELATIONS

Source: American Council on Race Relations

Editor's Note: There is no attempt made here to evaluate the work or worth of the interracial organizations listed below. Predominantly Negro organizations do not appear in this group, but are listed under the topic, "National Negro Organizations." There are a number of national and international trade unions, most of them affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations (CIO), which work toward racial unity, but they are not listed here. However, there are listed the special committees set up by some trade unions specifically to promote better racial relations.

The following list, culled from a compilation by the American Council on Race Relations, does not include race relations organizations which seek to aid only Jewish, Indian or any single group other than Negroes, but only those which seek to help Negroes or all minority groups.

The American Council on Race Relations was set up, with headquarters in Chicago, in 1944, to act as an overall clearing house for all interracial organizations. It offers an advisory and consultant service, disseminates information, and stimulates planning programs.

NATIONAL AND REGIONAL AGENCIES

American Anti-Bigotry Committee: Elmer V. Cartledge, Exec. Dir., 819 13th St., N.W., Washington 4, D.C.

American Civil Liberties Union: Lucille B. Milner, Sec., 170 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.

American Committee for Protection of Foreign Born: Abner Green, Exec. Sec., 23 W. 26th St., New York 10.

American Council on Education: George F. Zook, Pres., 744 Jackson Pl., Washington, D.C.

American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, Inc.: Raymond Dennett, Sec., 1 E. 54th St., New York 22.

American Council on Race Relations: A. A. Liveright, Dir., 19th Floor, 32 W. Randolph St., Chicago.

The American Education Fellowship: (Formerly Progressive Education Association), 289 Fourth Avenue, New York 10.

American Federation of Teachers, Committee on Cultural Minorities: Miss Layle Lane, Chairman, 226 W. 150th St., New York.

American Free World Association: Mrs. George L. Bell, Acting Ex. Sec., 1710 I St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

American Friends Service Committee: Clarence E. Pickett, Exec. Sec., 20 S. 12th St., Philadelphia.

American Labor Education Service, Inc.: Eleanor G. Coit, Dir., 437 W. 59th St., New York 19.

Race Relations Division, American Missionary Association: Charles S. Johnson, Dir., Social Science Institute, Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

American Youth for Democracy: Carl Ross, Executive Secretary, 13 Astor Pl., New York 3.

Boys' Clubs of America: David W. Armstrong, Exec. Dir., 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16.

Bureau for Intercultural Education: H. H. Giles, Exec. Dir., 1697 Broadway, New York 19.

Catholic Interracial Council: George K. Hunton, Sec., 20 Vesey St., New York 7.

Common Council for American Unity: Read Lewis, Exec. Dir., 222 Fourth Ave., New York 3.

Conference of Southern Students: Charles Proctor, Pres., Fisk University, Nashville 8, Tenn.

Congress of Racial Equality: Frank Shearer, Pres., 222 N. 20th St., Columbus, O.

The Cooperative League of the United States of America: E. R. Bowen, Gen. Sec., 343 South Dearborn St., Chicago 4.

Council Against Intolerance in America: E. Sherwood, Sec., 17 E. 42nd St., New York 17.

Council for Democracy: Ernest Angell, Pres., 11 W. 42nd St., New York 18.

Entertainment Industry Emergency Committee: June Blythe, Admin. Sec., 1560 Broadway, Room 405, New York.

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, Commission on the Church and Minority Peoples: Rev. Bradford S. Abernethy, Dir., 297 Fourth Ave., New York.

Foundation of Catholics for Human Brotherhood: Miss Martha M. Minke, Exec. Sec., Room 300, 384 E. 149th St., New York 55.

The General Education Board: Albert R. Mann, Vice-Pres. and Dir., 49 W. 49th St., New York 20.

The Girls' Friendly Society, U.S.A.: Mrs. Helen Gibson Hogue, Exec. Sec., 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16.

Industrial Areas Foundation: Saul Alinsky, Dir., 8 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

Institute for American Democracy, Inc.: Rev. William C. Kernan, Sec. and Exec. Dir., 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17.

Institute of Ethnic Affairs, Inc.: John Collier, 817 Southern Building, Washington 5, D.C.

Institute for Intercultural Studies: Gregory Bateson, Sec., 15 W. 77th St., New York 24.

Intercultural Education Workshop: Rachel Davis-DuBois, Dir., 204 E. 18th St., New York 3.

International Labor Defense: Hon. Vito Marcantonio, Pres., 112 E. 19th St., New York.

International Workers Order, National Organizing Committee for Negro Work: Mrs. Louise Thompson-Patterson, Chairman, 80 Fifth Ave., New York 11.

Interracial Film and Radio Guild: Caleb Peterson, 1143 W. 37th Pl., Los Angeles, Cal.

Interracial Friendship Movement of the Presbyterian Church: The Rev. Ritchie A. Low, Chairman, Johnson, Vt.

Julius Rosenwald Fund: Edwin R. Embree, Pres., 4901 Ellis Ave., Chicago.

The League for Fair Play, Inc.: Robert Norton, Exec. Sec., 11 W. 42nd St., New York 18.

League for Industrial Democracy: Harry Laidler, Exec. Sec., 112 E. 19th St., New York.

The League for National Unity, Inc.: Dr. E. George Payne, Pres., Woolworth Building, New York 7.

The Methodist Church, Wesleyan Service Guild: Marian Lela Norris, Sec., 150 Fifth Ave., New York.

National Association of College Women, Race Relations Committee: Mrs. Ralph V. Cook, Chairman, 2028 McCulloch St., Baltimore.

National Commission on Interracial Relations, National Federation of Catholic College Students: c/o Miss Margaret Conway, 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

National Committee on Housing, Inc.: Mrs. Samuel I. Rosenman,

Chairman, 512 Fifth Ave., New York 18.

National Committee to Abolish the Poll Tax: Mrs. Katherine Shryver, Exec. Sec., 127 B St., S.E., Washington 3, D.C.

National Community Relations Advisory Council: Arnold Aronson, 295 Madison Avenue, New York 17.

National CIO Committee to Abolish Racial Discrimination: George L. P. Weaver, Dir., 718 Jackson Pl., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

National Council for Prevention of War: Frederick J. Libby, Exec. Sec., 1013 18th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

National Education Association of the United States: Frank W. Hubbard, Dir., 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

National Federation for Constitutional Liberties: Frances M. Williams, Admin. Sec., 205 E. 42nd St., New York 17.

National Lawyers Guild: Martin Popper, Nat. Exec. Sec., 16 E. 41st St., New York 17.

National League of Women Voters: Anna Lord Strauss, Pres., 726 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D.C.

National Sharecroppers Fund, Inc.: Eileen A. Fry, Exec. Sec., 8 W. 40th St., New York 8.

Northern Baptist Convention, Council on Christian Social Progress: Donald B. Cloward, Exec. Sec., 152 Madison Ave., New York 16.

Pacific Coast Committee on American Principles and Fair Play: Ruth W. Kingman, Exec. Sec., 465 California St., San Francisco, Cal.

Pan-American Good Neighbor Forum: Ernest Schwarz, Sec., Suite 1518, 19 S. La Salle St., Chicago 3.

People's Institute of Applied Religion: Claude C. Williams, Dir., Suite 420, 131 W. Lafayette, Detroit 26, Mich.

Phelps-Stokes Fund: Thomas Jesse Jones, Educational Dir., 101 Park Avenue, New York 17.

Post-War World Council: Elsie Elfenbein, Exec. Dir., 112 E. 19th St., New York 3.

The Presbyterian Fellowship for Social Action: G. Shubert Frye, Sec.-Treas., 345 Roosevelt Ave., Syracuse 10, N.Y.

Public Affairs Committee, Inc.: Violet Edwards, Dir. of Education and Promotion, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

Russell Sage Foundation: Shelby M. Harrison, Gen. Dir., 130 E. 22nd St., New York 10.

Southern Conference for Human Welfare: James A. Dombrowski, Exec. Sec., 506 Presbyterian Bldg., Nashville 3, Tenn.

The Southern Regional Council: Guy B. Johnson, Exec. Dir., Room 432, 63 Auburn Ave., N.E., Atlanta 3, Ga.

Southern Workers' Defense League: Frank McCallister, Sec., 212 Palmer Bldg., Atlanta, Ga.

Union for Democratic Action: James Loeb, Jr., Exec. Sec., 9 E. 46th St., New York 17.

Unitarian Fellowship for Social Justice: Felix D. Leon, Sec., 25 Beacon St., Boston 8, Mass.

UAW-CIO Fair Practices Committee: George W. Crockett, Jr., Exec. Dir., 618 Maccabees Building, Detroit 2, Mich.

United Christian Council for Democracy: 457 W. 123rd St., New York.

Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, United States Section: Dorothy Detzer, National Sec., 1734 F St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Workers Defense League, National Non-Partisan Defense Agency of the Labor Movement: Morris Milgram, National Sec., 112 E. 19th St., New York 3.

Writers' War Board, Committee to Combat Race Hatred: Robert J. Landry, Chairman, 122 E. 42nd St., New York 17.

Young Men's Christian Associa-

tion, National Council: Dr. Channing H. Tobias, Senior Sec. for Colored Work, 347 Madison Ave., New York.

Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America, National Board: Helen J. Wilkins, Sec. for Interracial Education, Division of Community Y.W.C.A.'s, 600 Lexington Ave., New York 22.

Youthbuilders, Inc.: Sabra Holbrook, Exec. Dir., 120 E. 16th St., New York 3.

STATE-WIDE AGENCIES

Alabama

Alabama Committee on Interracial Cooperation: The Rev. William H. Marmion, Chairman, 1910 12th Ave., S., Birmingham.

California

California Council for Civic Unity: c/o Lawrence Hewes, 259 Geary St., Room 604, San Francisco.

Peace Officers Committee on Civil Disturbances: Hon. R. W. Kenny, Chairman, State Bldg., San Francisco 2.

Colorado

Colorado Committee for Fair Play: C. P. Garman, Sec.-Treas., 621 Mack Bldg., Denver 2.

Connecticut

Connecticut Interracial Commission: Frank T. Simpson, Special Asst., State Office Bldg., Hartford.

Florida

Florida Council of the Commission on Interracial Cooperation: Mrs. Henry Havens, Sec.-Treas., 2845 Corinthian Ave., Jacksonville.

Georgia

Committee for Georgia: Atlanta Chamber of Commerce Building, Atlanta.

Georgia Committee on Interracial Cooperation: R. L. Russell, Dir., 415 Wesley Memorial Bldg., Atlanta.

Illinois

Illinois Interracial Commission: Ann La Foe, Sec., 19 S. La Salle St., Chicago.

State of Illinois Commission to Promote and Encourage Interfaith and Harmony: Barnet Hodes, Chairman, City of Chicago Labor Department, City Hall, Chicago.

Indiana

Indiana Negro History Society: John W. Lyda, Pres., 462 S. 16th St., Terre Haute.

Kentucky

Committee for Kentucky: 427 4th St., S., Louisville 2.

Kentucky Commission on Negro Affairs: J. M. Tydings, Chairman, Frankfort.

Massachusetts

The Governor's Committee for Racial and Religious Understanding: Julius E. Warren, Chairman, 200 Newbury St., Boston.

Minnesota

The Governor's Interracial Commission: Rev. Francis J. Gilligan, Chairman, 2200 Grand Ave., St. Paul 1.

Mississippi

Mississippi Council on Interracial Co-operation: F. C. Willcoxon, Chairman, Cor. Clay and Monroe Sts., Vicksburg.

New Jersey

New Jersey Division Against Discrimination: Department of Education, State of New Jersey, Newark.

New York

New York Commission Against Discrimination: 124 E. 28th St., New York.

North Carolina

North Carolina Commission on Interracial Cooperation: The Rev. Ernest J. Arnold, Dir., College Station, Durham.

Ohio

Ohio Community Relations Council: Louis B. Greenberg, Exec. Dir., 1520 NBC Building, Cleveland.

Pennsylvania

Pennsylvania State Temporary Commission on the Conditions of the Urban Colored Population: Lawrence Foster, Exec. Dir., 524 S. 16th St., Philadelphia 46.

Texas

Good Neighbor Commission of Texas: Pauline R. Kibbe, Exec. Sec., State Capitol, Austin.

Texas Commission on Interracial Cooperation: Dr. A. L. Porterfield, Chairman, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth.

Virginia

Virginia Commission on Interracial Cooperation: Dr. Thomas C. Allen, Dir., 715 Central National Bank Building, Richmond 19.

West Virginia

West Virginia Human Relations Commission: Dr. Carl Frasure, Chairman, Exec. Dept., State of West Va., Charleston 5.

LOCAL AGENCIES

Alabama

Interracial Relations Committee of the Tuscaloosa Religious Council: J. T. McKee, Chairman, Tuscaloosa.

Montgomery Interracial Committee: The Rev. F. E. Churchill, Sec., St. Mark's Methodist Church, Cor. Perry and Noble, Montgomery 6.

California

Berkeley Interracial Committee: Alice James, Corresponding Sec., 2707½ Virginia St., Berkeley.

The Monterey Peninsula Interracial Committee: Mrs. Dwight Morrow, Jr., Sec., Box 2466, Carmel.

Council for Civic Unity: Dr. E. C. Farnham, Chairman, 215 W. 7th St., Los Angeles.

Los Angeles Committee for Home Front Unity: Edmund W. Cooke, Exec. Sec., Office of the Mayor, City Hall, Los Angeles 12.

Los Angeles County Committee for Interracial Progress: B. O. Miller, Chairman, 139 N. Broadway, Los Angeles 12.

Friends of the American Way: William C. Carr, Chairman, 305 Kensington Pl., Pasadena 3.

Civic Unity Committee of San Francisco: Maurice Harrison, Chairman, 111 Sutter St., San Francisco.

Council for Civic Unity: Dr. Aubrey E. Haan, Assistant Exec. Sec., 101 Post St., San Francisco 8.

Interracial Council: Monterey.

Mayor's Community Council on Anti-Racial Discrimination: Beverly Hills.

Colorado

Denver Committee on Racial Equality: L. G. Thomas, Cor. Sec., 2654 Humboldt St., Denver.

Connecticut

Citizens Committee: James K. Morse, Chairman, Ansonia.

Committee of Unity, Freedom and Friendship: Mrs. Clara M. Stern, Sec., 360 State St., Bridgeport 4.

The Interracial Council of Greater Hartford: The Rev. Everett A. Babcock, Gen. Sec., 11 Asylum St., Hartford.

Mayor's Interracial Committee: The Rev. Robert A. Moody, Sec., Municipal Building, Hartford 4.

New London Interracial Council: The Rev. Oliver Bell, Pres., 193 Hemstead St., New London.

District of Columbia

Co-ordinating Committee for Building Better Race Relations: Marion H. Elliot, Sec., 1318 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington.

Florida

Interracial Committee of Miami: Preston B. Bird, Chairman, Dade County, Miami 32.

Interracial Committee: Fred S. Hall, Sec., 637 New York Ave., Winter Park.

Georgia

The Columbus-Phenix City Religious Council, an Association of Christians and Jews: Theo J. McGee, Pres., Columbus.

Illinois

Chicago Council Against Racial and Religious Discrimination: Homer A. Jack, Exec. Sec., Room 812, 166 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4.

Friendship House: Ann Harrigan, Dir., 309 E. 43rd St., Chicago.

Mayor's Committee on Race Relations: Thomas H. Wright, Exec. Dir., Room 618, 134 N. LaSalle St., Chicago.

Philodemic Council: Mrs. Harriet Keys, Acting Chairman, 612 E. 51st St., Chicago.

The South Central Association: Robert A. Ewens, Exec. Dir., 6 E. Garfield Blvd., Chicago 15.

Youth for Interracial Solidarity: James E. Hunt, Pres., 203 N. Wabash Ave., Suite 712, Chicago.

Back of the Yards Neighborhood Council: Joe Meegan, Exec. Dir., 4000 Ashland Ave., Chicago.

Chicago Action Council: Robert Greenfield, Pres., 176 W. Adams St., Chicago 3.

Interracial Fellowship League of Industrial Workers: Joseph B. O'Neal, Chairman, 6208 Vernon Ave., Chicago 37.

Interracial Organization for the Destruction of Race Hatred: Thomas J. Knight, Exec. Sec., 12 W. Garfield Blvd., Chicago.

Chicago Civil Liberties Committee: Ira Latimer, Exec. Sec., 410 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago.

Race Relations Committee of the Metropolitan Housing Council of Chicago: Saul Alinski, Chairman, 228 N. LaSalle St., Chicago.

Race Relations Committee of the City Club: Hotel LaSalle, Chicago.

Danville Interracial Committee: James H. French, Chairman, City Hall, Danville.

The United Youth Fellowship: Faith L. Nansen, 314 Millikin Bldg., Decatur.

Evanston Interracial Committee: Leon J. Kranz, Chairman, 2010 Orrington St., Evanston.

Galesburg Interracial Commission: The Rev. Alan Jenkins, Chairman, Central Congregational Church, Galesburg.

Peoria Inter-Racial Committee: Col. M. D. Johnson, Chairman, 614 W. Richwood Blvd., Peoria.

Rockford Interracial Commission: Charles P. Connolly, Sec., 2212 Douglas St., Rockford.

Springfield, Illinois, Municipal Inter-Racial Commission: D. E. Webster, Sec., 210½ S. 5th St., Springfield.

Indiana

Evansville Interracial Commission: Sam Weil, Pres., 28 S. East Riverside, Evansville.

Fort Wayne Interracial Commission: Mary Catherine Smeltzly, Sec., 338 E. Washington Blvd., Fort Wayne 2.

Gary Interracial Committee: H. H. Kleinschmidt, Pres., Gary Chamber of Commerce, Gary.

Anselm Forum: Reuben E. Olson, Gary.

Committee on Interracial Justice: John J. Wenzel, S.J., Chairman, West Baden College, West Baden Springs.

Interracial Commission: Dr. Charles Rochelle, Lincoln High School, Indianapolis.

Fort Wayne Catholic Interracial Council: The Rev. Thomas A. Durkin, Chaplain, Fort Wayne.

Iowa

Des Moines Interracial Commission: Frank T. Dillon, Chairman, Y.M.C.A., Des Moines.

Kansas

St. Mary's College Interracial Committee: R. Bernard, St. Mary's.

Louisiana

New Orleans Committee on Race Relations: 6th Floor, 211 Camp St., New Orleans 12.

Maryland

Baltimore Committee for Home-front Democracy: Mrs. H. Milton Wagner, Chairman, Baltimore.

Citizens Committee for Justice: Dr. J. E. T. Camper, Chairman, 639 N. Carey St., Baltimore 17.

The Elkton Inter-racial Committee: Dr. J. L. Johnson, Chairman, 232 E. High St., Elkton.

Massachusetts

Greater Boston Community Relations Committee: Thomas H. Mahony, Chairman, 10th Floor, 70 State St., Boston.

Frances Sweeney Committee: Isabel Currier, Boston.

Good Neighbour Association of Boston, Mattapan and Hyde Park, Boston.

Community Relations Committee: Juanita J. Saddler, Exec. Sec., 7 Temple St., Cambridge 39.

Malden Federation for Social Planning: Mrs. George L. True, Exec. Sec., 11 Beltram St., Malden.

Malden Committee for Racial and Religious Understanding: Malden.

Pittsfield Community Relations Committee: Pittsfield.

Springfield Adult Education Council: Springfield.

Race Relations Committee of the Roxbury Neighborhood Council: Roxbury.

Interracial Council of Worcester: Mrs. Russell O. Quinton, Co-Chairman, 23 Prospect St., Worcester.

Michigan

Citizens' Good Will Committee: James R. Golden, Chairman, Battle Creek.

Committee on Interracial and Intercultural Understanding in the Schools: Claire M. Sanders, Exec. Sec., 701 American Radiator Bldg., 1346 Broadway, Detroit 26.

Detroit Interracial Committee: Mrs. Beulah T. Whitby, Asst. Dir., 305 W. Fort, Detroit.

The Interracial Intercultural Fellowship of Greater Detroit: Thoburn T. Brumbaugh, Sec., 404 Park Ave. Bldg., Detroit.

Metropolitan Detroit Council on Fair Employment Practice: Clarence W. Anderson, Exec. Sec., 906 Transportation Bldg., Detroit 25.

Union for Democratic Action Coalition Committee on Interracial Understanding: Claire Sanders, Chairman, 700 American Radiator Bldg., Detroit 26.

Minnesota

St. Paul Council of Human Relations: Dr. Charles J. Turck, Chairman, Macalester College, St. Paul 5.

Social Studies Interracial Committee on Fair Play: 2808 West River Road, Minneapolis.

Missouri

Citizens Interracial Committee: Owen Davidson, Exec. Sec., 1020 McGee St., Kansas City.

Committee for the Practice of Democracy: Girard T. Bryant, Pres., 2206 E. 25th St., Kansas City 1.

The Catholic Interracial Council: The Rev. Ralph W. Warner, S.J., St. Malachy's Church, St. Louis.

St. Louis Race Relations Commission: Edwin B. Meissner, Chairman, 301-302 Municipal Courts Bldg., 1300 Market St., St. Louis.

New Jersey

Asbury Park Intercultural Committee: Charles Frankel, Sec., Kinmouth Bldg., Asbury Park.

Race Relations Committee of the Atlantic City Chamber of Commerce: C. W. Cain, Chairman, 2306 Pacific Ave., Atlantic City.

Burlington Interracial Committee: J. Margaret Warner, Sec., Burlington.

Bloomfield Council on Race Relations: 392 Franklin St., Bloomfield.

Citizens Committee on Interracial Unity: William R. Jackson, Chairman, 153 Court St., Newark.

Intercultural Education Council: Dr. J. Rumney, Chairman, Y.W.C.A., 53 Washington St., Newark 2.

Interracial Council of Newark: Mrs. R. P. Milburn, Pres., 822 DeGraw Ave., Newark 4.

Madison Interracial Committee: Frances Alter Boyle, Vice-Chairman, Madison Public Library, Madison.

Passaic Community Welfare Committee: Dr. George O. Kirk, Chairman, First Congregational Church, 160 High St., Passaic.

Paterson Good-Will Committee: Charles H. Roemer, Sec., 148 Market St., Paterson 1.

Salem County Good Will Council: Mrs. J. Donald Woodward, Sec., 100 W. Broadway, Salem.

Trenton Committee for Unity: Mrs. Edward M. Yard, Exec. Sec., 303 Wilkinson Bldg., 203 E. State St., Trenton 4.

New York

Albany Interracial Group: Marguerite H. Lane, Co-Chairman, 518 Madison Ave., Albany 3.

Board of Community Relations: 904 City Hall, Buffalo 2.

Brownsville Neighborhood Council, Brooklyn.

Mayor's Committee on Unity: Charles E. Hughes, Jr., Chairman, 705 Municipal Bldg., Brooklyn 1.

The Bronx Conference for Racial and Religious Unity: Councilman Michael J. Quill, Chairman, 2488 Grand Concourse, New York 58.

The Mayor's Committee on Community Relations: Hon. David Diamond, Vice-Chairman, Prudential Building, Buffalo 2.

The Jamaica Interracial and Interfaith Committee: Mrs. Anthony

Pisciotta, Chairman, P.O. Box 233, Jamaica 1.

Mayor's Interracial Committee: Mrs. Walter K. Klass, Administrative asst., 12 Locust Ave., New Rochelle.

City-Wide Citizen's Committee on Harlem: Charles A. Collier, Exec. Sec., 516 5th Ave., New York 18.

Interracial Fellowship of Greater New York: The Rev. Ralph H. Rowse, Exec. Sec., 564 W. 160th St., New York 32.

The Committee on Unity of the American People: Jane Howarth, Dir., International Inst. of Niagara Falls.

Committee on Interracial Relations: The Rev. Harry Hooper, Chairman, 61 Stuyvesant Pl., Staten Island.

Staten Island Council for Democracy: Dr. Mary E. Meade, Pres., Room 120, Borough Hall, Staten Island.

Citizens' Unity Committee: Joseph Czyzewski, Sec., 1101 Oxford Pl., Schenectady.

Interracial Committee: Mrs. Helen A. Smith, Chairman, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy.

White Plains Friends of Interracial Cooperation: Ray Gibbons, Chairman, White Plains.

North Carolina

Interracial Committee of New Bern Girl Scout Council: New Bern.

Durham Interracial Committee: James O. Cobb, 111 Corcoran St., Durham.

Ohio

Continuation Committee on Race Relations: Mr. Jack Kidney, Good-year Rubber Co., Akron.

Mayor's Friendly Relations Committee: Mrs. J. R. Ong, Sec., Room 105, City Hall, Cincinnati.

Race Relations Committee, Antioch College Community Government: Connie Burden, Chairman, Yellow Springs.

Board of Community Relations: Lee Wachtel, Sec., Municipal Reference Library, Cleveland.

Interracial Committee: Thelma Gerting, 4402 Southern Building, Youngstown.

The Fact Finding Committee: Emmett Wheaton, Jr., Toledo.

The League for Human Rights: Grace E. Meyette, Dir., 511 Chester Ninth Building, Cleveland.

The Vanguard League, Inc.: Atty. Frank C. Shearer, Pres., 222 N. 20th St., Columbus.

Columbus Council for Democracy: Ray S. Reinert, Pres., Room 7, 9 E. Long St., Columbus 9.

Interracial Committee for Toledo: C. Arthur Collin, Pres., Textile Company, Toledo.

Oregon

Allied Racial and Minorities Study: Oliver E. Smith, Dir., 3411 S.W. First Ave., Portland 1.

The Social Industrial and Race Relations Committee: Miss Ruth Haefner, Chairman, 4242 N.E. Failing St., Portland.

Committee on Race Relations, Portland City: J. C. Plankinton, Chairman, 516 Oregon Bldg., Portland 4.

Pennsylvania

Greater Coatesville Interracial Committee: Sadie B. Taylor, Sec., Coatesville.

Harrisburg Committee on Race Relations: W. Justin Carter, Jr., Chairman, 1831 Market St., Harrisburg.

The Lancaster Interracial Council: Rev. N. W. Shollenberger, Pres., The Crispus Attucks Center, Howard Ave., Lancaster.

City-Wide Interracial Committee: Laurence Foster, Sec., 524 S. 16th St., Philadelphia 46.

Council for Equal Job Opportunity: Robert Parker, Sec., Room 923, 121 N. Broad St., Philadelphia.

Fellowship House: Marjorie Penney, Dir., 1431 Brown St., Philadelphia 30.

Germantown Interracial Com-

mittee: Stanley R. Yarmall, Chairman, 5337 Knox St., Germantown, Philadelphia 44.

Philadelphia Fellowship Commission: Marjorie Penney, Sec., 1431 Brown St., Philadelphia 30.

Pittsburgh Council on Intercultural Education: Edward O. Tabor, Chairman, 244 4th Ave., Pittsburgh 22.

Committee on Cultural Factors in Group Work: Mary Blake, Sec., American Service Institute, 907 Columbia Bldg., Pittsburgh 22.

Interracial Committee of Allegheny County: Edward O. Tabor, Chairman, 14 Wood St., Pittsburgh.

Interracial Commission: Jesse Thompson, 133 E. 3rd St., Erie.

Christian Fellowship Education Center: The Rev. William H. Robinson, Dir., 1629 Sandusky Ct., Apt. 229, Pittsburgh 12.

South Carolina

Interracial Committee of Charleston, S. Carolina: Rev. C. S. Ledbetter, 32 Bull St., Charleston.

Florence County Council on Race Relations: Mary Helen Oetzel, Treas., Box 488, Florence.

Rock Hill Council of Interracial Cooperation: The Rev. A. B. Hawkes, Co-Chairman, First Baptist Church, Rock Hill.

Tennessee

Nashville Council on Community Relations: Miss Louise Young, Sec., Scarritt College, Nashville.

Texas

The Civic Federation of Dallas: Elmer Scott, Exec. Sec., 2419 Maple Ave., Dallas 4.

Houston Interracial Commission: Charles A. Shaw, Vice Pres.-Treas., 222 W. Dallas Ave., P.O. Box 2097, Houston.

Bexar County Committee for Interracial Cooperation: John C. Granbery, Chairman, 3305 W. Ashby, San Antonio 1.

Woxahachie Committee on In-

terracial Cooperation: Mrs. B. A. Hodges, Treas., 301 University Ave., Woxahachie.

Utah

Progressive Youth of Salt Lake: Jo Ann Squires, Vice Chairman, 320 E. Third So., Salt Lake City.

Citizens Committee for Interracial Progress: Salt Lake City.

Council for Civic Unity: Florence M. Pierce, Chairman, Y.W.C.A., 322 E. Broadway, Salt Lake City.

Virginia

Alexandria Committee of the Virginia Commission on Interracial Cooperation: The Rev. Robert F. Gibson, Jr., Chairman, P.O. Box 970, Alexandria.

Charlottesville Interracial Cooperation Commission: Dr. Frank M. Daniel, Chairman, 202 E. High St., Charlottesville.

Petersburg Interracial Committee: Luther P. Jackson, Sec., Virginia State College, Ettrick.

The Roanoke City and County Race Relations Commission: The Rev. R. Edward Dowdy, Pres., Enon Oaks, Hollis.

Interracial Commission of Lawrenceville and Brunswick County: J. Alvin Russell, Pres., Lawrenceville.

Lynchburg Interracial Commission: C. W. Seay, Sec.-Treas., 620 Jackson St., Lynchburg.

Interracial Council of Loudoun County: Mrs. Guy Moffett, Willow Glen Farm, Paeonian Springs.

Washington

Civic Unity Committee: Ann P. Madsen, Sec., 1404½ 6th Ave., Seattle.

Committee on Democratic Education, Seattle Public Schools: Chester D. Babcock, Curriculum Consultant, Social Studies; Administration Bldg., 810 Dexter Ave., Seattle 9.

Spokane Council on Race Relations: G. H. Schlauch, Chairman, Y.W.C.A., W. 921 Main Ave., Spokane.

Tacoma Interracial Council:
Helen B. Stafford, Sec., Tacoma.

Vancouver Civic Unity League:
3200 F St., Vancouver.

Interracial Council: Mark A. Smith, Vice Pres., General Delivery, Vancouver.

Walla Walla Interracial Committee: Walla Walla.

West Virginia

Four Freedoms Fellowship:

Ervin Kampe, Exec. Sec., Box 653, Charleston 1.

Wisconsin

Interracial Federation of Milwaukee County: Elizabeth A. Campbell, Pres., 787 N. Van Buren St., Milwaukee 2.

Northwest Community Council of Milwaukee: Paul Phillips, Exec. Sec.-Treas., 904 W. Vine St., Milwaukee 5.

NATIONAL NEGRO ORGANIZATIONS

(Asterisk denotes 1943 officers, due to inability to obtain later information.)

MISCELLANEOUS

Accountants, Nat'l Society of, Pres., Jesse B. Blayton, 239 Auburn Ave., N.E. Atlanta; Sec., G. Stevens Marchman, 4636 So. Parkway, Chicago.

Actors' Guild, Negro, Pres., Noble Sissle; Sec., Mabel Roane, 1674 Broadway, New York.

***Adult Education and the Negro, Conferences on,** Pres., Dr. Elaine Locke, Howard University, Washington, D.C.; Sec.-Treas., William M. Cooper, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

***Aeronautical Assoc. of Negro Schools,** Pres., G. L. Washington, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama.

African Affairs, Council on, Exec. Dir., Max Yergan, 23 W. 26th St., New York.

***Agricultural Workers, National Assoc. of Negro,** Sec., Dr. M. F. Spaulding, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama.

***Airmen's Assoc., Nat'l,** Pres., A. Porter Davis; Sec., Willa Brown, 5440 Indiana Ave., Chicago.

***Anti-Prejudice Society,** Pres., C. Townsend Tucker, 4406½ S. Central Ave., Los Angeles, Cal.

Bankers' Assoc., Nat'l Negro, Pres., L. D. Milton, Citizens' Trust Co., Atlanta; Sec., M. C. Martin, Danville Savings Bank and Trust Co., Danville, Va.

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Business League, Nat'l Negro, Pres., Roscoe C. Dunjee, Box 1254, Oklahoma City, Okla.; Sec., O. K. Manning, 222 W. Dallas St., Houston, Tex.

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Negro History, etc., see Life and History.

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BOOKS

BOOKS BY AND ABOUT NEGROES

Published during 1944, 1945, and early 1946

Compiled by Elizabeth Bowser

(This is not a complete list)

Editor's Note: Asterisks designate authors known to be Negroes.

- Adamic, Louis, *A Nation of Nations*; Harper and Bros., New York. A history of the assimilation, development, and contributions of the various races and nationalities of which America is composed.
- *Adams, Frankie V., *Soulcraft*; Morris Brown College Press, Atlanta, Ga. Sketches on Negro-white relations designed to encourage friendship.
- Allan, Douglass, *Gamblers with Fate*; Robert M. McBride, New York. Experiences in Africa of famous explorers, scientists, writers, and cameramen.
- Allee, Marjorie Hill, *The House*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. A story of the efforts of a group of college students to put democracy into practice.
- Aptheker, Herbert, *Essays in the History of the American Negro*; International Publishers, New York. Essays on the Negro's part in America's history, including his participation in the Revolutionary and Civil Wars.
- Ardrey, Robert, *World's Beginning*; Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York. A prophetic novel of the postwar years which includes a prediction about unchecked racial hatred.
- Ashley, Montagu, M. F., *Man's Most Dangerous Myth: The Fallacy of Race*; Columbia University Press, New York. Essays exploding superstitions and unfounded false beliefs about members of the world's racial groups.
- Barnouw, Erik, *Radio Drama in Action*; Farrar & Rinehart, New York. Twenty-five plays of a changing world, including several by Negro writers.
- Beals, Carleton, and Bryce Oliver, Herschel Brickell and Samuel Guy Inman, *What the South Americans Think of Us*; Robert M. McBride, New York. South American opinion of the Good Neighbor Policy and of our racial policies.
- Beecher, John, *All Brave Sailors*; L. B. Fischer, New York. The story of the Liberty Ship "Booker T. Washington," and its racially mixed crew under Captain Hugh Mulzac, first Negro to command a government ship in World War II.
- Belfrage, Cedric, *A Faith to Free the People*; Dryden Press, New York. The story of the Rev. Claude Williams of Tennessee, leader in interracial unity, and his Institute of Applied Religion.
- Boas, Franz, *Race and Democratic Society*; J. J. Augustin, New York. A volume of papers and addresses designed for lay audiences, by an anthropologist.
- *Bontemps, Arna, *We Have Tomorrow*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. Biographical sketches of twelve young, contemporary Negroes who have achieved success in occupations hitherto denied Negroes.
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- Botkin, B. A., *Lay My Burden Down*; University of Chicago Press, Chicago. A collection of stories from former slaves, depicting life on the plantations in the pre-emancipation era.
- *Boykin, Ulysses, *A Handbook of the Detroit Negro*; The Minority Study Associates, Detroit. A study of Negroes in Detroit.
- *Brooks, Gwendolyn, *A Street in Bronzeville*; Harper and Bros., New York. Poems about the life of Chicago's South Side.
- *Brooks, Walter, *The Pastor's Voice*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. The collected verse of the late pastor of the Nineteenth Street Baptist Church in Washington, D.C.
- *Brown, Aaron, *An Evaluation of the Accredited Secondary Schools for Negroes in the South*; published by the author. A doctoral thesis submitted to the University of Chicago.
- Brown, Francis J., and Joseph S. Roueck, *One America*; Prentice Hall, New York. Essays on the history, contributions, and problems of America's national and racial minority groups.
- Brown, Wenzell, *Dynamite on Our Doorstep*; Greenberg, New York. A presentation of the Puerto Rican situation and a plan for the alleviation of undesirable conditions which are resulting in enmity toward the United States.
- Bryk, Felix, *Dark Rapture*; Juno Books, Forest Hills, New York. An ethnological study of the life of the African Negro.
- Buckmaster, Henrietta, *Deep River*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A historical novel about abolitionists in the pre-Civil War era.
- *Bullock, Benjamin F., *Practical Farming for the South*; University of North Carolina. A handbook on farm life.
- *Burley, Dan, *Original Handbook of Harlem Jive*; published by the author, 140 Bradhurst Ave., New York. A collection of material on jive; classic poems and conversations in jive, with a glossary of jive terms.
- Burman, Ben Lucien, *Rooster Crows for Day*; E. P. Dutton, New York. The adventures of a white Mississippian who pilots a river boat up the African Congo.
- *Burnham, Frederick Russell, *Taking Chances*; Haynes Corporation, Los Angeles.
- Burns, Sir Alan, *History of Nigeria*; W. W. Norton, New York. A history of the Nigerian people and their relations with the British government.
- Caldwell, Erskine, *Stories by Erskine Caldwell*; Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York. Stories about life in Georgia among its Negro and white residents.
- Caldwell, Erskine, *Tragic Ground*; Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York. A novel of southern poverty.
- Calvin, Ira, *The Lost White Race*; Countway-White, Brookline, Mass. A new statement of white supremacy and the necessity of racial purity.
- *Campbell, E. Simms, *More Cuties in Arms*; a collection of original cartoons.
- Carter, Hodding, *The Winds of Fear*; Farrar and Rinehart, New York. A novel about Negroes, whites, and conflicting forces of liberalism and prejudice in a southern town.
- *Cayton, Horace and *Drake, St. Clair, *Black Metropolis*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A sociological study of the Negro in Chicago.
- Chatto, Clarence I., and Alice Halligan; *The Story of the Springfield Plan*; Barnes and Noble, New York. The plan with which a community achieved integration of its diverse racial and religious groups by elimination of prejudice through intercultural education.
- Cherne, Leo, *The Rest of Your Life*; Doubleday, New York. Postwar predictions by the president of the Research Institute of America; including a survey of the Negro's postwar position.

- Cloete, Stuart, *Against These Three*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. The biographies of three men with a lust for the control of South Africa.
- Conrad, Earl, *Harriet Tubman*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. A biography of the adventurous life of Harriet Tubman, Negro abolitionist.
- Coody, Archibald S., *The Race Question from the White Chief*; Mississippi Printing Company, Vicksburg, Miss. A story of the life and times of James K. Vardaman.
- Cook, Fanny, *Mrs. Palmer's Honey*; Doubleday, New York. A novel about a Negro girl and her family in St. Louis, involving the interracial situation.
- *Cook, Mercer and *Dantes Bellegarde, *The Haitian-American Anthology: Haitian Readings from American Authors*; l'Imprimerie de l'Etat, Port-au-Prince, Haiti. An anthology of English prose and verse, with three exceptions, of North American origin.
- *Crite, Allan Rohan, *Were You There When They Crucified My Lord?* Harvard University Press. The Negro spiritual illustrated.
- Cushman, Mary Floyd, *Missionary Doctor*; Harper and Bros., New York. The story of twenty years of medical missionary work in Africa.
- Cuthbert, Clifton, *The Robbed Heart*; L. B. Fischer, New York. A story about the difficulties encountered in a romance between a Negro girl and a white man in the North.
- *Danquah, J. B., *The Akan Doctrine of God: A Fragment of Gold Coast Ethics and Religion*; Lutterworth Press, London. The third part of a study by a native of Africa.
- *Davidson, Henry Damon, *Inching Along*; National Publication Co., Nashville, Tenn. An autobiography of the life and work of an Alabama farm boy.
- *Dean, Corrinne, *Cocoanut Suite*; Meador, Boston. Short stories about life in Puerto Rico.
- Delos, Joseph, Anton C. Pegis, and others, *Race: Nation: Person: Social Aspects of the Race Problem*; Barnes and Noble, New York. A symposium designed to discuss social implications of the race problem.
- Detzer, Lt. Col. Karl, *The Army Reader*; Bobbs-Merrill, Indianapolis, Ind. A collection of literature on World War II, including several articles on the Negro soldier's contribution.
- *Dismond, Binga, *We Who Would Die*; Wendell Malliet & Co., New York. A collection of forty poems.
- Dos Passos, John, *The State of the Nation*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. An analysis of the nation's thinking, including current thought on the Negro question.
- *Downs, Karl E., *Meet the Negro*; The Login Press, Pasadena, Calif. Vignettes of sixty prominent contemporary Negroes.
- DuBois, Rachel, *Build Together, Americans*; Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, New York. A report on experiments in intercultural democracy in educational institutions.
- DuBois, Rachel, *Get Together, Americans*; Harper and Bros., New York. Solving the racial problem through group activities.
- *DuBois, W. E. B., *Color and Democracy: Colonies and Peace*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A presentation of the colonial problem and its relation to world peace.
- *DuBois, W. E. B., and Guy B. Johnson, *Encyclopedia of the Negro: Preparatory Volume*; H. W. Wilson, New York. A prospectus, including a bibliography and plans of the undertaking.
- *Dumas, Alexandre, *The Journal of Madame Giovanni*; Liveright Publishing Corp., New York. A heretofore unpublished novel about a young Frenchwoman accompanying her husband on a ten-year trip halfway around the world.
- *Dunbar, Paul Laurence, *Complete*

- Poems of Paul Laurence Dunbar*; Dodd, Mead, New York. A reprint.
- D'Usseau, Arnaud and James Gow, *Deep Are the Roots*; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. A play about the problems of a returning southern Negro veteran.
- Edmunds, Murrell, *Red, White and Black*; Bernard Ackerman, New York. Twelve stories about the "little people" of the South by a Virginian.
- Embree, Edwin, *Thirteen Against the Odds*; Viking Press, New York. Biographies of thirteen outstanding Negroes.
- *Everett, Sybil Bird, *Adventures with Life*; Meador, Boston. An autobiography.
- Ewen, David, *Men of Popular Music*; Ziff, Davis, Chicago. Biographical sketches of the fifteen most important names in the history of modern popular music.
- Fast, Howard, *Freedom Road*; Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York. A novel depicting the thwarted attempt at interracial co-operation by a group of whites and Negroes in the post-Civil War era.
- *Fauset, Arthur Huff, *Black Gods of the Metropolis*; University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia. A study of Negro religious cults of the urban North.
- Field, Marshall, *Freedom Is More Than a Word*; University of Chicago Press. A plan for achieving equality of opportunity and freedom for the people of the United States.
- *Frazier, E. Franklin and Eric Williams, *The Economic Future of the Caribbean*; Howard University Press, Washington, D.C. An account of a conference between white and Negro representatives of the United States and the West Indies.
- Freyre, Gilberto, *Brazil*; Alfred A. Knopf, New York. A discussion of Brazil's success through the integration of all racial segments of its population.
- Funaroff, Sol, *Exile from a Future Time*; Dynamo, New York. Poems about the laborer, including a group of Negro songs.
- Funderbert, J. S., *The March of the Negro*; Christopher House, Boston, Mass.
- Gaer, Joseph, *The First Round*; Duell, Sloan and Pearce, New York. A story of the Political Action Committee of the Congress of Industrial Organization (CIO), with a section on "The Negro in 1944."
- Gaither, Frances, *The Red Cock Crows*; Macmillan, New York. A novel of the old South and a Yankee from Maine.
- Gatti, Attilio, *South of the Sahara*; Robert M. McBride, New York. The experiences of a famous explorer in the wilds of Africa.
- Gelhorn, Martha, *Liana*; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. A novel of the conflict of a young Frenchman on a Vichy-controlled Caribbean island, torn between patriotism and a mulatto girl whom he loves.
- Goell, Milton J., *The Wall That Is My Skin*; Wendell Malliet & Co., New York. Poems inspired by the Negro's fight for democratic rights.
- Goffin, Robert, *Jazz: From the Congo to the Metropolitan*; Doubleday, New York. A history of jazz.
- Gregg, Bishop John A., *Of Men in Arms*; A. M. E. Sunday School Union Press, Nashville, Tenn. An account of visits to Negro troops on several war fronts.
- Hailey, Lord, *Future of Colonial People*; Princeton University Press. A British point of view toward colonials and their future.
- Halsey, Margaret, *Some of My Best Friends Are Soldiers*; Simon and Schuster, New York. A gay, humorous book with a canteen for soldiers as its main locale. Race discrimination is discussed in some parts.
- Hammerstein, Oscar, *Carmen Jones*; Alfred A. Knopf, New York. A modernized version of the story of the opera "Carmen," written for a Negro musical cast.

- *Handy, W. C., *Father of the Blues*; Macmillan, New York. An autobiography.
- *Handy, W. C., *Unsung Americans Sung*; sketches, anecdotes, drawings, photographs, and songs about outstanding Negroes in American history.
- *Hare, Maude Cuney, *Negro Musicians and Their Music*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C.
- Hayes, Dorsha, *Who Walks with the Earth*; Harper and Bros., New York. A novel about the labor movement and one union in particular; includes hero's reaction to Jews and Negroes.
- Hendricks, W. C., *Bundle of Trouble and Other Tarheel Tales*; Duke University Press, Durham, N.C. A collection of Negro folklore of North Carolina.
- *Hercules, Eric E. L., *Democracy Limited*; Central Publishing Co., Cleveland. A discussion of America's race problem and a plan for its solution as seen by a native of Trinidad.
- Hewlett, John, *Thunder Beats the Drums*; Robert M. McBride, New York. Exploring the Bolivian jungle.
- *Himes, Chester, *If He Hollers Let Him Go*; Doubleday, New York. The tribulations of a belligerent Negro shipyard foreman beset by resentment of white southern crew members and the resigned, complacent attitude of his girl friend.
- Hubbard, Freeman H., *Railroad Avenue*; Whittlesey House. A collection of stories and legends about American railroads, including accounts of John Henry, Slim Welt, and other Negro characters, real and legendary.
- *Hughes, Langston (edited by), *Seven Poets in Search of an Answer: A Poetic Symposium*; Bernard Ackerman, New York. Ten poems of protest.
- Huizinga, Henry, *Joseph Charles Price*; Christopher House, Boston. A biography of the founder of Livingstone College, Salisbury, N.C.
- Hyland, James, *The Dove Flies South*; Bruce, Milwaukee. The story of the reformation of a prejudiced Southerner.
- Hynd, Alan, *Betrayal from the East*; Robert M. McBride, New York. An exposé of Japanese espionage activity in the United States, including an attempt to alienate the American Negro.
- Imbert, D. I., *The Stranger Within Our Gates*; Watson Bros., New Orleans. A South American's impression of American social problems.
- Jackson, George Pullen, *White and Negro Spirituals: Their Life Span and Kinship*; J. J. Augustin, New York. A history of two hundred years of song among American country people with one hundred and sixteen songs.
- *Jarvis, J. Antonio, *The Virgin Islands and Their People*; Dorrance, Philadelphia. A study of the customs, history, and economics of the Virgin Islands.
- Johnson, Osa, *Bride in the Solomons*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. Photographs and stories of adventure in the Solomon Islands.
- *Jones, H. A. B. (edited by), *Africa Today and Tomorrow*; African Academy of Arts and Research, New York.
- Kendrick, Baynard, *Lights Out*; William Morrow, New York. The story of a southern war veteran who, through blindness, loses his prejudice against Negroes by unknowingly developing a friendship for a Negro in an army convalescent home for the blind.
- Kenyon, Theda, *Black Dawn*; Julian Messner, New York. A novel about the post-Civil War era as it affected the whites and newly liberated Negroes.
- Kirkbride, Ronald, *Winds, Blow Gently*; Frederick Fell, New York. The story of a Quaker family who buy a southern farm on which many Negroes are employed, and their neighbors who resent their insistence

- upon fair treatment for all.
- Korngold, Ralph, *Citizen Toussaint*; Little, Brown and Co., Boston. The story of the founder of the Haitian Republic.
- Landry, Stuart Omer, *The Cult of Equality*; Pelican Pub. Co., New Orleans, La. Arguments in favor of white supremacy.
- Lee, Alfred McClung and Norman Daymond Humphrey, *Race Riot*; Dryden Press, New York. A discussion of lessons learned from the Detroit race riot, with suggestions for methods of preventing interracial conflicts.
- Lee, Charles, *North, East, South and West*; Howell, Soskin, New York. An anthology of outstanding fiction and nonfiction on the Negro from coast to coast.
- *Logan, Rayford, *The Senate and the Versailles Mandate System*; Minorities Publishers, Washington, D.C. An analysis of Republican and Democratic viewpoints from 1917 to 1920.
- *Logan, Rayford, and others, *What the Negro Wants*; University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N.C. Essays on the Negro by fourteen Negro writers.
- *Logan, Rayford, *The Negro in the Postwar World*; a discussion of the Negro on the national and international scene.
- Lotz, Philip, *Rising Above Color*; Association Press, New York. Biographies of thirteen outstanding Negroes.
- MacDougald, Duncan, *Languages and Press of Africa*; University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia. A list of the principal languages and a study of the development of literacy in Africa.
- MacIver, R. M., *Group Relations and Group Antagonisms*; Harper and Bros., New York. A collection of lectures and discussions on the problems confronting religious, national, and minority groups.
- McKinney, Richard I., *Religion in Higher Education Among Negroes*; Yale University Press, New Haven, Conn. A discussion of the need for courses in religion in Negro college schedules.
- McLaughlin, Robert, *A Short Wait Between Trains*; Alfred A. Knopf, New York. A collection of short stories of army life with sidelights on the Negro soldier.
- *Maloney, Arnold, Sr., Arnold, Jr., and Clarence, *Pathways to Democracy*; Meador, Boston. Facts and statistics on the Negro.
- *Mellon, Matthew T., *Early American Views of Negro Slavery*; Meador, Boston.
- Meyer, Agnes E., *Journey Through Chaos*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A picture of America, including a look at the Negro situation.
- *Micheaux, Oscar, *The Story of Dorothy Canfield*; Book Supply Company, New York. A Negro love story with murder and adventure.
- *Micheaux, Oscar, *The Case of Mrs. Wingate*; Book Supply Company, New York. The story of a white girl in the South who becomes romantically interested in a Negro man.
- Miller, Arthur, *Situation Normal*; Reynal and Hitchcock, New York. Stories of life in army camps, including anecdotes about Negro soldiers.
- Miller, Margery, *Joe Louis, American*; Current Books, New York. A biography of Joe Louis.
- Monger, Miriam, *Tales from Toussaint*; Bruce Humphries, Boston. A collection of stories about interracial relations in the South.
- Moon, Bucklin (edited by), *Primer for White Folks*; Doubleday, New York. An anthology of articles and stories about the Negro designed to present the basic elements of the race problem to the white population.
- Morris, Terry, *No Hiding Place*; Alfred A. Knopf, New York. The tribulations of a white army wife, and her reactions to the racial discrimination she encounters in her camp experiences.
- *Morrison, William Lorenzo, *Dark*

- Rhapsody*; Henry Harrison, New York. A small book of poems.
- *Murphy, Beatrice, *Love Is a Terrible Thing*; Hobson Press, New York. Poetry depicting various stages of love.
- Myers, Henry Alonzo, *Are Men Equal?* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. A philosophical discussion of the question of equality.
- Myrdal, Gunnar, *An American Dilemma*; Harper and Bros., New York. An analysis of the Negro's situation in American life by a Swedish sociologist, in two volumes.
- Nixon, Raymond B., *Henry W. Grady*; Alfred A. Knopf, New York. A biography of the editor of the *Atlanta Constitution*, who was considered a "reformer" on the race question in his day.
- Noon, John A., *Labor Problems of Africa*; University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia. Number six of a series called *The African Handbooks*.
- Northrup, Herbert, *Organized Labor and the Negro*; Harper and Bros., New York. An analysis of the Negro in the trade union movement.
- *Ojike, Mbonu, *My Africa*; John Day, New York. An African's opinion of his land and of imperialism.
- *Orizu, A. A. Nwafor, *Without Bitterness*; Creative Age Press, New York. A discussion of imperialism in Africa and of Africa's capacity for self-rule.
- Peebles, Edwin, *Swing Low*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. The story of a Negro couple and their struggles in the slums of Atlanta.
- *Perkins, Chaplain W. M., *I Can Tell the World*; published by the author, 213 N. Houghton Street, Philadelphia. The story of a 200-voice chorus of Negro soldiers, organized by the author, which gained world-wide attention.
- *Petry, Ann, *The Street*, Houghton Mifflin, Boston. A novel of the difficulties in rearing useful citizens in overcrowded urban slum districts.
- Pink, Louis H., *Freedom from Fear*; Harper and Bros., New York. A plea for practical application of the Atlantic Charter to minority groups in this country.
- *Pittman, Evelyn LaRue, *Rich Heritage*; Harlow Publishing Company, Oklahoma City, Okla. Songs about American Negro heroes with music and brief biographies, illustrated.
- Pope, Edith, *Colcorton*; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. The story of a white family in Florida and its efforts to conceal a trace of ancestral Negro blood.
- *Porter, Dorothy B., *North American Negro Poets: A Biographical Checklist of Their Writings, 1760-1944*; The Book Farm, Hattiesburg, Miss.
- Powdermaker, Hortense, *Probing Our Prejudices*; Harper and Bros., New York. A plan for the use of schools in combating prejudices.
- *Powell, Adam Clayton, Jr., *Marching Blacks*; Dial Press, New York. An interpretive history of the rise of the Negro common man.
- *Powell, A. Clayton, Sr., *Riots and Ruins*; Richard R. Smith, New York. A discussion of race riots; their causes and prevention.
- *Powell, W. H. R., *A Supervised Life*; published by the author: 2040 Christian St., Philadelphia. A collection of the fourteen best sermons delivered by the author.
- Puckette, Clara Childs, *Old Mitt Laughs Last*; Bobbs-Merrill, Indianapolis. A story of Negro life on a small island off the coast of South Carolina.
- Rice, Madeleine Hooke, *American Catholic Opinion in the Slavery Controversy*; Columbia University Press, New York. A study of the position of the Catholic Church on the question of slavery.
- *Richardson, Ben, *Great American Negroes*; Thomas Crowell, New York. Twenty-one biographies of successful contemporary Negroes.
- Roark, Eldon, *Memphis Bragabouts*; Whittlesey House, New York. Sto-

- ries about well-known and little-known people of Memphis, including W. C. Handy and other Negroes.
- Robertson, Constance, *Fire Bell in the Night*; Henry Holt, New York. A novel of the Underground Railroad in upper New York State.
- *Robeson, Eslanda Goode, *African Journey*; John Day, New York. A report on conditions in Africa after a tour of the African continent by the author.
- *Rogers, J. A., *Sex and Race*; Vol. III; J. A. Rogers, 37 Morningside Ave., New York. A history of the mixture of the races.
- *Rosemond, Henry C., *Haiti: Our Neighbor*; The Haitian Pub. Co., Brooklyn, N.Y. Conditions in Haiti presented in play form.
- Sanford, John, *The People from Heaven*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A symbolistic novel of the operation of good and evil forces in a small town when its first Negro woman arrives on the scene.
- Saunders, Hilary St. George, *Pioneers! O Pioneers!* Macmillan, New York. America as an English visitor sees her, including his impression of the race problem.
- Schoenfeld, Lt. Comm. Seymore J., U.S.N., *The Negro in the Armed Forces*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. The history of the Negro's participation in the armed forces of the United States since 1775.
- Seaver, Edwin, *Cross Section*; L. B. Fischer, New York. A collection of new American works by several authors, some Negro.
- Segre, Alfredo, *Mahogany*; L. B. Fischer, New York. A novel about a West African businessman.
- Shokunbi, Mae Gleaton, *Songs of the Soul*; Dorrance & Co., Philadelphia. Short inspirational prose essays on many subjects.
- Sillen, Samuel, *Walt Whitman, Poet of American Democracy*; International Publishers, New York. An anthology and interpretation of Whitman's work, including his views on racial equality.
- Smith, Lillian, *Strange Fruit*; Reynal and Hitchcock, New York. A story of love and frustration in a romance between a colored girl and a white man in a small southern town.
- *Spencer, Dr. Gerald A., *Cosmetology in the Negro*; The Parris Collection, 176-15 129th Ave., L.I., N.Y. A discussion of medical problems arising in the treatment of the skin and hair of Negroes.
- Stegner, Wallace, *One Nation*; Houghton Mifflin, Boston. A report in words and photographs of the plight of racial and religious minority groups in America today.
- Stern, Jacques, *The French Colonies, Past and Future*; Didier, New York. A survey of French colonial problems.
- *Stewart, Ollie, and others, *This Is Our War*; Afro-American Newspapers, Baltimore, Md. A selection of war stories written by six of the Afro-American's war correspondents.
- Teilhet, Darwin L., *The Fear Makers*; D. Appleton-Century, New York. A detective story in which Negro characters are featured.
- *Tolson, Melvin B., *Rendezvous with America*; Dodd, Mead, New York. Poems on America's growth, including several pieces on the Negro's participation in the country's development.
- Tryon, Lewis R., *Poor Man's Doctor*; Prentice Hall, New York. A doctor's philosophy, including his views on the race question.
- Ulanov, Barry, *Duke Ellington*; Creative Age Press, New York. Biography of the band leader and composer.
- Walker, Annie Kendrick, *Tuskegee and the Black Belt: A Portrait of a Race*; The Dietz Press, Richmond. The race problem objectively viewed by a white woman in Alabama.
- Wallace, Henry, *Sixty Million Jobs*; Simon and Schuster, New York. A

- plan for full employment in America, including a discussion of the Negro's share of this potential prosperity.
- Warner, W. Lloyd and Leo Shoole, *The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups*; Yale University Press.
- Warner, W. Lloyd, Marten B. Loeb, and Robert J. Havighurt, *Who Shall Be Educated*; Harper and Bros., New York. A discussion of educational institutions and the class system, including a discussion of the Negro's position in this regard.
- Watkins, Sylvestre C., *An Anthology of American Negro Literature*; Random House, New York.
- Welles, Sumner, *An Intelligent American's Guide to the Peace*; Dryden Press, New York. An appeal to Americans to view the peace with intelligence and maturity, including a discussion of Negro colonial peoples.
- Wheeler, Mary, *Folk Songs of the River Packet Era*; Louisiana State University Press, Baton Rouge.
- *White, Walter, *A Rising Wind*; Doubleday, New York. A discussion of the Negro soldier based upon an eyewitness report of troops in England, Italy, and Africa.
- Williams, Chancellor, *The Raven*, Dorrance & Co., Philadelphia. A novel based on the life of Edgar Allan Poe, with an account of his reactions to slavery.
- *Williams, Eric, *Slavery and Capitalism*; University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N.C. A study of the economics behind emancipation.
- Willkie, Wendell, *An American Program*; Simon and Schuster, New York. A discussion of the inadequacies of several of our government's policies, including the racial situation.
- Wilson, Ruth Danenhowe, *Jim Crow Joins Up*; Press of William Clark, 655 Sixth Ave., New York. A study of Negroes in the armed forces of the United States.
- *Woods, Odella Phelps, *Recaptured Echoes*; Exposition Press, New York. A volume of verse.
- *Woodson, Carter G., *Negro Makers of History*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. A revised and enlarged edition.
- *Wright, Richard, *Black Boy*; World Publishing Co., New York. An autobiography of a sensitive southern boy who struggled against forces seeking to deny him the right to live according to his capabilities and desires.
- Yerby, Frank, *The Foxes of Harrow*; Dial Press, New York. A novel of blood and love in the old Creole South during the Civil War and Reconstruction.
- Ziff, William B., *The Gentlemen Talk of Peace*; Macmillan, New York. An analysis of the complexities of establishing peace, including a discussion of the Negro race problem.

JUVENILE

- Becker, John, and Georgine Faulkner, *Melindy's Medal*; Julian Messner, New York. A story for children from ten to fourteen, about a little Negro girl in Boston.
- Becker, John, *The Negro in American Life*; Julian Messner, New York. A book for children on the Negro's contribution to, and his participation in, American life.
- Beim, Lorraine, and Jerold and Ernest Crichlow, *Two Is a Team*; Harcourt, Brace, New York. A children's story of the friendship of a white boy and a colored boy, emphasizing the necessity for co-operation.
- Gatti, Ellen and Attilio, *Here Is Africa*; Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. A book on Africa for younger readers.
- *Graham, Shirley, and George D. Lipscomb, *George Washington Carver*; Julian Messner, New York. A biography of Dr. Carver designed for older children.

- *Jackson, Jesse, *Call Me Charley*; Harper and Bros., New York. The story of the boyhood friendship of a white and a Negro boy; for children from ten to fourteen.
- Leger-Belair, Edgard, *Gigi and Gogo*; Reynal and Hitchcock, New York. The adventures of a little Negro boy and a giraffe, written in English, and translated into French, Portuguese, and Spanish.
- Mayer, Edith H., *Our Negro Brother*; Shady Hill Press, New York. An illustrated book for children from eight to fourteen, presenting sketches of outstanding Negroes.
- *Merriweather, Evangeline H., *Stories for Little Tots*; Family Publication Co., Terre Haute, Ind. The struggles and achievements of the Negro, written for children.
- *Shackelford, Jane Dabney, *My Happy Days*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. A story in photographs of the day-by-day life of an eight-year-old Negro boy, and his hard-working, middle-class family.
- Shapiro, Irvina, *John Henry and the Double-pointed Steam Drill*; Julian Messner, New York. A story of the fabulously strong Negro hero.
- Sharpe, Stella Gentry, *Tobe*; University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, N.C. A children's story of a Negro boy on a farm in North Carolina.
- Sperry, Armstrong, *Storm Canvas*; John C. Winston, Philadelphia. A story of war at sea and a trip to Haiti in 1814.
- Stevenson, Augusta, *George Carver, Boy Scientist*; Bobbs-Merrill, Indianapolis. The childhood of Dr. Carver.
- *Trent, Altona Johns, *Play Songs of the Deep South*; Associated Publishers, Washington, D.C. A collection of illustrated children's songs from the South.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES ON THE NEGRO

By L. D. Reddick

Curator, Schomburg Collection of Negro Literature, New York Public Library

As an indication of the broadening and deepening interest in race relations many individuals and institutions are developing "Negro collections." Sometimes these are only a few shelves of current books, several scrapbooks of newspaper clippings, and a dozen-odd autographed photographs of well-known personalities. On the other hand, there are about eight of these "Negro collections" that are important.

These special libraries have been built up by unusual book collectors and at present are maintained, for the most part, by specialists and professional librarians. Their holdings of books, pamphlets, manuscripts (and often prints and sculpture as well) may be counted in the thousands. They are essential sources for numerous scholars and popular writers.

Of the eight outstanding special

libraries on the Negro, two are located in New York, one in Washington, D.C., one at Yale, one at Hampton Institute, one at Atlanta University, one at Fisk University, and one at Tuskegee.

Those collections that are located in the general area of Washington, New York, and Boston have the added advantage of being near vast library resources of a general nature. As is well known, Washington, New York, Boston, and Chicago are among the greatest library centers in this country.

Accordingly, students of research in these centers find that the specific materials on the Negro that are found in the special Negro collections may be placed in their proper historical, literary or social context by the general materials on almost every conceivable subject that may be found in the vast

library resources of the four cities mentioned above. To some extent this is also true of a university such as Yale and at the co-operative library locations in Atlanta and Nashville.

Chicago thus far does not have an important Negro collection, although the beginnings of one exist at the Hall Branch of the Chicago Public Library. Neither does the Far West have an extensive Negro collection, although the Vernon Street Branch of the Los Angeles Public Library has made a worthwhile effort to preserve materials on the Negro in the West.

A few words of description may suggest the contents and scope of the best-known of these cultural institutions.

The Schomburg Collection

The Schomburg Collection of Negro Literature, located in the 135th Street Branch of the New York Public Library, is perhaps the most generally useful Negro collection in the United States. Its 11,000 books, 3000 manuscripts, and 2000 prints include strong holdings for the Negro in the West Indies and Africa, as well as in this country. The Harry A. Williamson Library on Negro masonry and the 81 typescript volumes of the field notes and memoranda of the Carnegie study (Gunnar Myrdal, director), "The Negro in America," are recent additions. Public lectures by authors and specialists in Negro studies are presented from time to time. The holdings of the Schomburg Collection may be supplemented by materials on the Negro in other divisions of the New York Public Library and in Columbia University, New York University, Union Theological Seminary, and the New York Historical Society.

The Arthur B. Spingarn Collection

Also in New York City is the Arthur B. Spingarn Collection, located in the owner's home. This is predominantly a library of Negro authors. It contains about 4000 books and pamphlets, 2000 pieces of music, and a few letters. Lan-

guages other than English are also represented. Mr. Spingarn has specialized in gathering the works of Negro authors, whereas most of the other libraries gather books on the principle of "by and about the Negro"; thus, including works about the Negro written by non-Negroes. In tracking down obscure or forgotten Negro authors in remote parts of the world, Mr. Spingarn has used some of the most modern methods of the book collector's craft.

The James Weldon Johnson Collection

The James Weldon Johnson Collection, donated to Yale University by Carl Van Vechten, derives its importance largely from its autographed copies of works by contemporary American Negro authors. Over a period of years, Mr. Van Vechten has known many of these authors personally; some of them have included rather lengthy memoirs and personal notes in their gift copies and letters to him. The James Weldon Johnson Collection contains excellent photographs of prominent Negroes. Most of these were done by Mr. Van Vechten himself.

The Moorland Foundation

The Moorland Foundation at Howard University in Washington, D.C., has over 10,000 items, including valuable Tappan, Grimke, and Joel Spingarn papers. This special collection on the Negro functions as a part of the university library and is a center for much of the research in the social studies which goes on at Howard University. The supervisor of the Moorland Foundation, Mrs. Dorothy Porter, has worked out plans for a "Union Catalog" of the holdings of all of the Negro collections. When these plans have been executed it will be possible through the Union Catalog and a system of inter-library loans to make the combined resources of all the Negro collections more generally available.

The Henry P. Slaughter Collection

Atlanta University, in December, 1945, purchased the private collection of Henry P. Slaughter. Mr. Slaughter had been a book collector for decades. His library of some 15,000 items had outgrown the confines of the Slaughter home. Wallace Van Jackson, chief of the Atlanta University Library, was instrumental in bringing this collection to Atlanta where it will give this southeast region access to materials not otherwise available. The Slaughter Collection, which will retain its name in the Atlanta University Library, is perhaps best known for its extensive pamphlet and print collection.

Fisk University Collection

Arthur A. Schomburg, for whom the Schomburg Collection is named, helped also in gathering the materials for the Negro collection of Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn. In more recent years Fisk has absorbed the collection on the Negro and the South that belonged to the now defunct Y.M.C.A. Graduate School of that city. This makes Fisk one of the strongest depositories for the study of the Negro in the South. However, among its 13,000 books and pamphlets are many items on the Negro in the North and outside

of the United States. Arna Bontemps, author and playwright, as well as librarian, is interested in developing his Negro collection as well as providing library materials for the university's institutions for race relations and African studies.

Hampton Institute Collection

The collection on the Negro at Hampton Institute is similar to the ones at the Fisk, Atlanta, and Howard Universities, and serves pretty much the same functions. Its 6000 items reveal great strength in biography, history, travel, and sociology.

Tuskegee Institute Collection

The records collected by Monroe N. Work, the bibliographer, and the Negro collection in the library at Tuskegee Institute give that institution books and manuscripts on the Negro in various parts of the world. However, the letters and papers of Booker T. Washington, founder of Tuskegee, are not here. This large and valuable collection of manuscripts, which document many important phases of the social history of the Negro in America since the Civil War, has been given by Tuskegee to the Library of Congress.

NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS

Source: Bureau of the Census

The Negro press included 164 active newspapers in 1943, according to a survey conducted by the Bureau of the Census. Although 58, or 35.4 percent, of these publications were accounted for by 20 cities, 34 states and the District of Columbia were represented.

A combined average net circulation of 1,613,255 per issue was recorded for 144 Negro newspapers during the period July 1, 1942, to June 30, 1943.

The returns for all Negro publications including both newspapers and periodicals show that 11 were inactive, that is, had suspended publication. However, a number of publishers stated that as a result of labor shortages they were finding difficulty in publishing their newspapers.

Of the 105 Negro magazines and bulletins for which names and addresses are available, 79 reported a combined average net circulation of 1,850,378 per issue.

Not less than 15 news-gathering agencies were operated by Negroes in 1943. Four of these agencies each served 40 or more newspapers with a combined circulation of one-half million or more. One agency distributed releases to 57 newspapers with a combined circulation of 947,000.

Source of Data and Lists of Publications

The statistics presented in this report are, for the most part, based on 270 forms returned to the Bureau of the Census in connection with its 1943 survey of Negro newspapers and periodicals. The total number of forms received by the Bureau of the Census includes 154 for newspapers, 99 for periodicals, and 17 for news-gathering agencies.

Circulation data are presented for

both Negro newspapers and periodicals whose responses included information on this point. Statistics on geographic distribution, press run, advertising lineage, press equipment, and date of establishment, however, are shown only for responding newspapers, and not for magazines or bulletins.

For Negro news-gathering agencies data are provided on the number and circulation of newspapers served by their releases and other material.

Lists are appended which present the name, address, frequency of issue, and field of publication for each of 273 Negro publications, including 20 for which no returns were made.

Lists A and B, arranged by states, provide this information for newspapers, and for magazines and bulletins, respectively. List C gives the names and addresses of 17 Negro news-gathering agencies with information as to frequency of issue of their releases.

Distribution of Newspapers

One or more of the 164 active Negro newspapers were published in the District of Columbia and in each of 34 states. Of the remaining 14 states none had more than 33,000 Negro inhabitants in 1940.

Three states had more than 8 active Negro newspapers: Texas with 12, Pennsylvania with 11, and Illinois with 9. Fourteen states and the District of Columbia were represented by from 5 to 8 Negro newspapers each. These states were Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Tennessee.

Average Net Circulation per Issue

During the period July 1, 1942, to June 30, 1943, 144 Negro newspapers, 114 of which are published weekly, had a combined average net circulation per issue of 1,613,255. Table 1 shows the number of Negro newspapers which furnished data pertaining to average net circulation, and the combined average net circulation per issue for these publications, by states.

TABLE 1.—COMBINED AVERAGE NET CIRCULATION PER ISSUE, FOR SELECTED NEGRO NEWSPAPERS, BY STATES: 1943

(Includes Negro newspapers which reported average net circulation. Separate presentation is limited to states for which 3 or more such publications were reported.)

State	Number of Newspapers	Combined Average Net Circulation
Total reporting	144	1,613,255
Alabama	6	22,250
Arkansas	6	37,600
California	6	80,500
Colorado	4	11,200
District of Columbia....	5	82,795
Florida	5	33,867
Georgia	7	32,600
Illinois	7	180,572
Kentucky	4	26,098
Louisiana	6	50,200
Michigan	5	48,506
Mississippi	8	17,028
Missouri	5	63,986
New Jersey	3	43,500
New York	7	113,193
North Carolina	3	16,564
Ohio	6	39,500
Oklahoma	4	10,381
Pennsylvania	10	286,345
Tennessee	6	141,580
Texas	11	73,453
Virginia	4	64,255
All other states 1.....	16	137,282

1 Includes 2 Negro newspapers in each of the following states: Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, South Carolina, and West Virginia; and 1 Negro newspaper in each of the following states: Delaware, Minnesota, Washington, and Wisconsin.

The circulation of 62 out of 108 newspapers reporting passed beyond state lines. For these newspapers, from 0.6 percent to 98.7 percent of their total average net circulation was accounted for by states other than the state of publication.

Eleven newspapers reported that their out-of-state circulation repre-

sented 46.7 percent or more of their total circulation. Two newspapers in this group had circulations of 210,000 and 133,180, respectively, but of the other 9 newspapers none had a greater circulation than 26,500.

The remaining 46 newspapers reporting on this item indicated that their average net circulation per issue was confined to the state of publication.

Advertising Linage and Press Equipment

Between July 1, 1942, and June 30, 1943, 2,121,141 inches of advertising were printed in 81 Negro newspapers. However, 65.1 percent of this volume of lineage was printed in 14 newspapers, 5 of which carried advertising in excess of 100,000 inches, the largest volume being 213,929 inches.

To the query, "What part of publication is printed with your own equipment," the publishers of 67 Negro newspapers replied "all," the publishers of 14 Negro newspapers replied "part," and the publishers of 64 Negro newspapers replied "none."

Length of Life of Newspapers

The dates of establishment for 144 active Negro newspapers, 110 of which are general in scope, range from 1848 to 1943, but 97, or 67.4 percent, of these publications are accounted for by the period 1920 to 1943. As indicated by their dates of establishment, the number of newspapers for this 24-year period includes 18 between 1 and 4 years old, 21 between 5 and 9 years old, 32 between 10 and 14 years old, 16 between 15 and 19 years old, and 10 between 20 and 24 years old.

Among the newspapers which were apparently more than 24 years old in 1943, there are 6 which were established between 1870 and 1879 and one which was established as early as 1848.

Fifty-two Negro newspapers—24 in the North, 24 in the South, and 4 in the West—were published in cities which had 50,000 Negro inhabitants or more in 1940. The dates of establish-

ment for 14 northern newspapers, 19 southern newspapers, and 3 western newspapers published in cities of this size indicate that none was more than 24 years old.

Magazines and Bulletins

The names and addresses of 105 Negro periodicals are presented in List C. Seventy-nine of these publications had a combined average net circulation of 1,850,378 per issue (table 2).

Editor's Note: Several of the new magazines with comparatively large circulations, ranging from 40,000 to about 100,000 each, are omitted from the census list, but are included, with other smaller ones, in an appended list, compiled by *The Negro Handbook*, at the end of List B. This appended list increases the total magazine and bulletin circulation figure by probably 300,000.

TABLE 2.—COMBINED AVERAGE NET CIRCULATION PER ISSUE FOR SELECTED NEGRO PERIODICALS: 1943

(Includes periodicals which reported average net circulation.)

Classification	Number of Periodicals	Combined Average Net Circulation
Total reporting	79	1,850,378
Advertising, business, and trade	8	16,350
Collegiate	4	4,612
Educational	20	44,950
Fraternal	7	26,700
General	9	88,750
Religious	27	1,659,216
Miscellaneous	4	9,800

Twenty-seven of the religious periodicals accounted for practically 90

percent of the average net circulation per issue for all magazines and bulletins reporting this item.

News-Gathering Agencies

The Bureau of the Census received forms from 17 Negro news-gathering agencies, two of which had suspended publication. Figures showing the average number and the estimated combined circulation of the newspapers served by 10 of these news-gathering agencies are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—NUMBER AND COMBINED AVERAGE NET CIRCULATION PER ISSUE FOR NEWSPAPERS SERVED BY SELECTED NEGRO NEWS-GATHERING AGENCIES: 1943

(Includes Negro news-gathering agencies which reported number and circulation of newspapers served.)

Designation *	Papers Served	
	Average Number	Estimated Combined Circulation
A	57	947,000
B	50	875,000
C	40	850,000
D	40	500,000
E	25	50,000
F	14	120,000
G	10	25,000
H	5	100,000
I	5	15,000
J	2	8,000

* The letters A, B, C, etc., are used in order not to disclose the name of any of the reporting agencies.

LIST A.—NEWSPAPERS

(Newspapers are issued weekly and are general in scope unless otherwise indicated. An asterisk (*) denotes a member of the Audit Bureau of Circulations.)

ALABAMA

Birmingham:

Baptist Leader

1621 Fourth Avenue, N. (Zone 3)

Birmingham World (semi-wkly.)

312 17th Street, N. (Zone 1)

Weekly Review

1622 Fourth Avenue, N. (Zone 3)

Mobile:

Mobile Weekly Advocate

559 St. Michael Street

Montgomery:

Alabama Tribune

123½ Monroe Street (Zone 2)

Tuskegee Institute:

Campus Digest (coll. mo.)

Box 635

ARIZONA

Tucson:

Arizona's Negro Journal

167 South Meyer Street

ARKANSAS

Carlisle:

Arkansas Baptist Flashlight (rel. semi-mo.)

P.O. Box 327

Little Rock:

Arkansas Survey-Journal
810 West Ninth Street
Arkansas World
905 Gaines Street
Baptist Vanguard (rel. semi-mo.)
1605 Bishop Street
Southern Christian Recorder (rel.)
2118 Cross Street
State Press
921 West Ninth Street

CALIFORNIA**Los Angeles:**

Afro-Tempo (suspended)
1166½ East Vernon Avenue
California Eagle
4075 South Central Avenue (Zone 11)
**Los Angeles Sentinel*
1050 East 43rd Place
Los Angeles Tribune
4215 South Central Avenue
Neighborhood News (adv.)
5000 South Central Avenue

Oakland:

California Voice
2624 San Pablo Avenue

San Francisco:

San Francisco Reporter
1740 Post Street

COLORADO**Denver:**

Colorado Statesman
615 27th Street
Denver Star
910 20th Street
Five Pointer
1316 East 22nd Avenue

Pueblo:

Western Ideal
100 West First Street

DELAWARE**Dover:**

Lantern (coll. semi-mo.)
Delaware State College

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Gaily News
1215 U Street, N.W. (Zone 9)

Sentry (labor semi-mo.)

1934 11th Street, N.W. (Zone 1)
**Washington Afro-American*
1800 11th Street, N.W. (Zone 1)
Washington Eagle (frat. mo.)
1915 14th Street, N.W. (Zone 9)
Washington Tribune
920 U Street, N.W. (Zone 1)

FLORIDA**Jacksonville:**

Florida Tattler
511 Broad Street

Miami:

Miami Times
1112 N.W. Third Avenue
Miami Tropical Dispatch
1013 N.W. Second Avenue
Miami Whip
1109 N.W. Second Avenue

Pensacola:

Colored Citizen
P.O. Box 823

Tampa:

Tampa Bulletin
P.O. Box 2232

GEORGIA**Albany:**

Albany Enterprise
216 South Jackson Street

Atlanta:

Atlanta Daily World (dly. & wkly.)
210 Auburn Avenue, N.E.
Georgia Baptist (rel. semi-mo.)
239 Auburn Avenue, N.E.
Maroon Tiger (coll. mo.)
Morehouse College

Augusta:

Echo
915½ Gwinnet Street

Rome:

Rome Enterprise (bi-wkly.)
503 Branham Avenue

Savannah:

Savannah Tribune
1009 West Broad Street

ILLINOIS**Champaign:**

Illinois Times
208 Ells Avenue

Chicago:

**Chicago Defender*
3435 Indiana Avenue (Zone 80)
Chicago Messenger
6306 Rhodes Avenue
Chicago Mirror (semi-mo.)
6306 Rhodes Avenue
Chicago Sunday Bee
3655 South State Street (Zone 9)
Chicago World
118 East 35th Street

East St. Louis:

Crusader
17 South 15th Street

Springfield:

Illinois Chronicle (bus.)
1210 South 16th Street
Illinois Conservator (mo.)
725½ East Washington Street

INDIANA

Evansville:

Evansville Argus
667 South Elliott Street

Gary:

Gary American
2085 Broadway

Indianapolis:

Indianapolis Recorder
518-520 Indiana Avenue (Zone 7)

IOWA

Des Moines:

Iowa Bystander
221½ Locust Street
Iowa Observer
1146 Keosauqua Street

KANSAS

Kansas City:

Plainedealer
1612 North Fifth Street

Wichita:

Negro Star (rel.)
1241 Wabash Avenue

KENTUCKY

Louisville:

American Baptist (rel.)
1715 West Chestnut Street (Zone 3)

Kentucky Reporter

1101 West Chestnut Street
**Louisville Defender*
619 West Walnut Street
Louisville Leader
930-932 West Walnut Street
Louisville News ³
442 South Seventh Street

LOUISIANA

New Orleans:

**Louisiana Weekly*
601 Dryades Street (Zone 13)
National Times
4804 Calliope Street
**New Orleans Informer-Sentinel*
2101 Dryades Street
Sepia Socialite (adv.)
1241 Dryades Street
Xavier Herald (coll. mo.)
Washington & Pine Streets (Zone 18)

Shreveport:

Shreveport Sun
1002 Pierre Avenue
Shreveport World (mo.)
1007½ Texas Avenue

MARYLAND

Baltimore:

**Baltimore Afro-American* (semi-wkly.)
628 North Eutaw Street (Zone 1)
**National Afro-American*
628 North Eutaw Street (Zone 1)

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston:

Boston Chronicle
794 Tremont Street
Guardian
932 Tremont Street

MICHIGAN

Detroit:

Detroit Tribune
2146 St. Antoine Street
**Michigan Chronicle*
268 Eliot Street

Hamtramck:

Detroit World Echo
P.O. Box 58 (Zone 12)

³ Formerly *Fall City News*.

Hamtramck North Detroit Echo
(mo.)

P.O. Box 58 (Zone 12)

Lansing:

Lansing Echo (adv.)
1215 Williams Street

MINNESOTA

Minneapolis:

Minneapolis Spokesman
314 Third Avenue, S.

MISSISSIPPI

Coffeeville:

Colored Messenger

Greenville:

Delta Leader
P.O. Box 534

Jackson:

Jackson Advocate
125½ North Farish Street
Mississippi Enterprise (adv.)
143 East Monument Street
Weekly Recorder
523 Bloom Street (Zone 7)

Meridian:

Weekly Echo (frat.)
2508 Fifth Street

Vicksburg:

Advance-Dispatch (semi-mo.)
1310 Farmer Street
Vicksburg Tribune
800 Monroe Street

MISSOURI

Jefferson City:

Lincoln Clarion (coll.)
Lincoln University

Kansas City:

**Kansas City Call*
1715 East 18th Street (Zone 8)

St. Louis:

Pine Torch
2846 Pine Street
St. Louis American
11 North Jefferson Avenue
St. Louis Argus
2312 Market Street

NEBRASKA

Omaha:

Omaha Guide
2420 Grant Street

NEW JERSEY

Newark:

**New Jersey Afro-American*
128 West Street (Zone 3)
New Jersey Herald-News
130 West Kinney Street
New Jersey Record
129 West Market Street

NEW YORK

Buffalo:

Buffalo Criterion
367 William Street
Buffalo Spokesman (adv.)
295 Jefferson Avenue
Buffalo Star
234 Broadway

New York:

New York Age
230 West 135th Street
**New York Amsterdam News*
2340 Eighth Avenue
**People's Voice*
210 West 125th Street

Rochester:

Rochester Voice (mo.)
446 Clarissa Street (Zone 8)

Syracuse:

Progressive Herald (bi-wkly.)
815 East Fayette Street

NORTH CAROLINA

Asheville:

Southern News
121 Southside Avenue

Charlotte:

Star of Zion (rel.)
329 South Brevard Street

Durham:

Carolina Times
P.O. Box 59

Raleigh:

Carolina Tribune
118 East Hargett Street

OHIO

Cincinnati:

Union
238 East Fourth Street

Cleveland:

**Cleveland Call and Post*
2319 East 55th Street

Cleveland Guide (edu.)
2279 East 90th Street
Cleveland Herald
6528 Cedar Avenue

Columbus:

Ohio State News
1112 Mt. Vernon Avenue

Hamilton:

Builer County American
422 South Front Street

Wilberforce:

Wilberforce Student (coll. occasional)
Wilberforce University

Youngstown:

Buckeye Review
Box 1436

OKLAHOMA

Muskogee:

Oklahoma Independent
325 North Second Street

Oklahoma City:

Black Dispatch
324 N.E. Second Street

Okmulgee:

Okmulgee Observer
411 East Fifth Street

Tulsa:

Appeal
419 North Greenwood Street
Oklahoma Eagle
123 North Greenwood Street

PENNSYLVANIA

Cheyney:

Cheyney Record (coll. mo.)
State Teachers College

Lincoln University:

Lincolonian (coll. semi-mo.)

Philadelphia:

Christian Recorder (rel.)
716 South 19th Street
Christian Review (rel.)
1428 Lombard Street
**Philadelphia Afro-American*
704 South Broad Street
Philadelphia Independent
1708 Lombard Street
**Philadelphia Tribune*

524-526 South 16th Street (Zone 46)

Picture News Weekly (adv.)

24 North 59th Street

Political Digest (pol. dly.—4 mos. yr.)

24 North 59th Street

Pittsburgh:

Kodesh Herald (rel. bi-mo.)

2252 Bedford Avenue

**Pittsburgh Courier*

2628 Centre Avenue

SOUTH CAROLINA

Columbia:

Lighthouse and Informer

1022½ Washington Street (Zone 20)

Palmetto Leader

1310 Assembly Street

Sumter:

Samaritan Herald

16½ West Liberty Street

TENNESSEE

Chattanooga:

Chattanooga Observer

124½ East Ninth Street

Jackson:

Christian Index (rel.)

109 Shannon Street

Knoxville:

Aurora (coll. mo.)

Knoxville College

Memphis:

Memphis World (semi-wkly.)

388 Beale Avenue

Whole Truth (rel. mo.)

820 North Montgomery Street

Nashville:

Modern Farmer (farm mo.)

403 Charlotte Avenue

Nashville Defender (suspended)

500 Eighth Avenue, S. (Zone 4)

Nashville Globe and Independent

403 Charlotte Avenue

National Baptist Union-Review (rel.)

523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)

TEXAS

Beaumont:

Industrial Era (bi-wkly.)

1108 Gladys Street

Dallas :

**Dallas Express*
P.O. Box 185

Fort Worth :

Fort Worth Defender
910 Grove Street
Fort Worth Mind
915½ Calhoun Street

Houston :

Houston Defender
1423 West Dallas Street (Zone 3)
**Informer*
2418 Leeland Avenue
Negro Labor News
419½ Milam Street
Texas Examiner (and *Christian Examiner*)
4520½ Lyons Avenue (Zone 10)

Marshall :

Campus Lens (coll. semi-mo.)
(temp. suspended)
Wiley College

Prairie View :

Prairie View Standard (edu. mo.)
Prairie View State College

San Antonio :

San Antonio Guard
809 Virginia Boulevard
San Antonio Register
207 North Centre Street (Zone 6)
**San Antonio Reformer*
322 South Pine Street

Waco :

Waco Messenger
109 Bridge Street

VIRGINIA**Ettrick :**

Virginia Statesman (coll. bi-wkly.)
Virginia State College

Hampton :

Hampton Script (coll. semi-mo.)
Hampton Institute

Norfolk :

**Journal and Guide*
719-723 East Olney Road

Richmond :

**Richmond Afro-American*
504 North Third Street

WASHINGTON**Seattle :**

Northwest Enterprise
P.O. Box 1873

WEST VIRGINIA**Charleston :**

West Virginia Digest
Box 902

Institute :

Yellow Jacket (coll. semi-mo.)
West Virginia State College

WISCONSIN**Milwaukee :**

Wisconsin Enterprise-Blade (adv.)
830 West Walnut Street (Zone 5)

LIST B.—MAGAZINES AND BULLETINS

(Issued monthly unless otherwise indicated)

ALABAMA**Talladega :**

Talladega Student (coll. 5 tms. yr.)
Talladega College

Tuskegee Institute :

Service (edu.)
Tuskegee Messenger (edu.)
Negro Worker

CALIFORNIA**Los Angeles :**

Western Christian Recorder (rel.)
672 East 51st Street

COLORADO**Denver :**

American Woodman Bulletin
(frat.)
2130 Downing Street (Zone 5)

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Aframerican Woman's Journal
(edu. qu.)
2017 11th Street, N.W. (Zone 1)
Barrister (law)
1922 13th Street, N.W. (Zone 9)

Journal of the National Association of College Women (edu. ann. with supplements)

2645 15th Street, N.W. (Zone 9)

Journal of Negro Education (edu. qu.)

Howard University (Zone 1)

Journal of Negro History (edu. qu.)

1538 Ninth Street, N.W. (Zone 1)

Lott Carey Herald (rel.)

1501 11th Street, N.W. (Zone 1)

National Negro Health News (health qu.)

United States Public Health Service

(Bethesda Station) (Zone 14)

Negro History Bulletin (edu. mo.—9 mo. yr.)

1538 Ninth Street, N.W. (Zone 1)

New Voice (rel. semi-ann.)

1727 13th Street, N.W. (Zone 9)

Omega Bulletin (frat. qu.)

1937 Alabama Avenue, S.E. (Zone 20)

Oracle (frat. qu.)

1937 Alabama Avenue, S.E. (Zone 20)

Pulse (gen.)

2627 Bowen Road, S.E. (Zone 20)

GEORGIA

Atlanta:

Atlanta University Bulletin (edu. qu.)

Atlanta University

Campus Mirror (coll. mo.—8 mo. yr.)

Spelman College

Colored Morticians Bulletin (bus.)

322 Houston Street, N.E.

Foundation (rel. qu.)

Gammon Theological Seminary

Morehouse Alumnus (edu. qu.)

Morehouse College

Phylon (edu. qu.)

Atlanta University

Spelman Messenger (coll. qu.)

Spelman College

Augusta:

Pilgrim's Progress (edu. wkly.)

Pilgrim Health & Life Ins. Co.

ILLINOIS

Chicago:

Circuit (women)

4729 South State Street

Co-operation (frat.)

3506 Indiana Avenue (Zone 15)

Negro Digest (gen.)

5619 South State Street (Zone 21)

PEP (bus.)

10 West 35th Street

Pyramid (frat. qu.)

3526 Indiana Avenue (Zone 15)

INDIANA

Indianapolis:

American Negro Digest (gen. qu.)

343 West 11th Street

KENTUCKY

Louisville:

Kentucky Negro Education Journal

(edu. 3 times a year)

2230 West Chestnut Street

LOUISIANA

New Orleans:

Christian Advocate—Central Edition (rel. wkly.)

631 Baronne Street

MARYLAND

Baltimore:

Colored Harvest (rel. bi-mo.)

1130 North Calvert Street (Zone 2)

Morgan State College Bulletin (edu.)

Morgan State College (Zone 12)

MASSACHUSETTS

Boston:

Trade Association News (bus.)

80 Humboldt Avenue

MICHIGAN

Detroit:

Postal Alliance (frat.)

3762 Seyburn Avenue

MISSISSIPPI

Bay Saint Louis:

Saint Augustine's Messenger (rel.)

St. Augustine's Seminary

MISSOURI

St. Louis:

Negro (gen. qu.)

4300 St. Ferdinand Street

NEW JERSEY

Atlantic City:

Apex News (gen. bi-mo.)
Indiana and Arctic Avenues

Paterson:

A. M. E. Zion Quarterly Review
(rel. qu.)
326 Ellison Street

NEW YORK

New York:

Caterer, Gazetteer & Guide (gen. qu.)
413 West 147th Street
Crisis (gen.)
69 Fifth Avenue (Zone 3)
Harlem Digest (edu.)
27 East 133rd Street
Interracial Review (gen.)
20 Vesey Street
Journal of the National Medical Association (med. bi-mo.)
30 Rockefeller Plaza (Zone 20)
Krinon (frat. ann.)
409 Edgecombe Avenue
National Medical News (med. ann.)
2376 Seventh Avenue
National News Bulletin (edu. qu.)
1790 Broadway (Zone 19)
Negro Quarterly (gen. qu.)
308 Lenox Avenue
New Sign (gen. wkly.)
180 West 135th Street
Opportunity, Journal of Negro Life (edu. qu.)
1133 Broadway (Zone 10)
Our World (gen.)
35 West 43rd Street
Voice of Missions (rel.)
112 West 120th Street

NORTH CAROLINA

Charlotte:

Quarterly Review of Higher Education Among Negroes (edu. qu.)
Johnson C. Smith University
Africo-American Presbyterian (rel.) (suspended)
Johnson C. Smith University

Durham:

Whetstone (bus. qu.)
Box 201

OHIO

Cleveland:

Cedar Y. M. C. A. Informer (edu. wkly.)
7615 Cedar Avenue

Hamilton:

National Negro Printer and Publisher (bus.)
422 South Front Street

Wilberforce:

Negro College Quarterly (edu. qu.)
Box 4, Wilberforce University

PENNSYLVANIA

Downingtown:

Downingtown Bulletin (edu. mo.— 9 mo. yr.)
Industrial School

Philadelphia:

A. M. E. Review (rel. qu.)
716 South 19th Street
Brown American (gen. qu.)
716 South 19th Street, Suite 600
Kappa Alpha Psi Journal (frat. qu.)
1520 North 17th Street
Mission Herald (rel. bi-mo.)
701 South 19th Street
Philadelphia Informer (bus.)
1644 South Street
Young People's Willing Worker Quarterly (rel. qu.)
5617 West Girard Avenue

Pittsburgh:

Advance (edu.)
2621 Centre Avenue
Informer (soc. work, bi-mo.)
1300 Fifth Avenue

RHODE ISLAND

Providence:

Advance Monthly (suspended)
157 Waldo Street

TENNESSEE

Chattanooga:

New Advance (rel.)
Box 888

Jackson:

Bible Band Topic (rel. qu.)
130 Madison Street

Memphis:

Le Moynite (coll. 3 times a yr.)
Le Moyne College
Sphinx (frat. qu.)
388 Beale Avenue

Nashville:

Advanced (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Beginner (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Broadcaster (edu. qu.)
A. and I. State College (Zone 8)
Bulletin (edu.)
A. and I. State College (Zone 8)
Christian Plea (rel.)
449 Fourth Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Fisk News (coll. 4 times a yr.)
Fisk University
Hope (rel.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Intermediate (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Junior (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Junior B. Y. P. U. (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Message Magazine (rel.)
2119 24th Avenue, N.
Metoka and Galeda (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Monthly Summary of Events and Trends in Race Relations (edu.)
Social Science Institute
Fisk University
Primary (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Senior (Sunday School Quarterly) (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Senior B. Y. P. U. (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)
Teacher (rel. qu.)
523 Second Avenue, N. (Zone 3)

Union City:

Cumberland Flag (rel.)
630 East Matthews Street

TEXAS

Fort Worth:

Monitor (frat. qu.) (suspended)
413 East Ninth Street (Zone 3)

Marshall:

Wiley Reporter (edu. qu.) (temp. suspended)
Wiley College

VIRGINIA

Ettrick:

Ivy Leaf of the Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority (frat. qu.)
Virginia State College

Lawrenceville:

C. I. A. A. Bulletin (athl. ann.)
Box 455

Richmond:

National Negro Insurance Association Service Bulletin (bus. qu.)
214 East Clay Street (Zone 19)
Progress Record (edu. qu.)
214 East Clay Street (Zone 19)
St. Luke Fraternal Bulletin (frat.)
900-2-4 St. James Street
Virginia Mutual Benefit Life Insurance Company Weekly Bulletin (bus. wkly.)
214 East Clay Street (Zone 19)
Virginia Union Bulletin (edu. 6 times yr.)
Virginia Union University (Zone 20)

WASHINGTON

Seattle:

Pacific Northwest Bulletin (gen. semi-mo.)
Main Street at Sixth Avenue

Tacoma:

Pacific Northwest Review (gen.)
111 South Ninth Street

APPENDED LIST OF MAGAZINES

ALABAMA

Birmingham:

Newspic
1630 4th Ave., N.

CALIFORNIA

Los Angeles:

Sepia Hollywood
1134 E. Vernon Ave.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Washington:

Sepia Sports
P.O. Box 6471

FLORIDA

Miami:

Bronze Confessions
221 N.W. Ninth St.

ILLINOIS

Chicago:

Child Play (quar.)
4019 Vincennes Ave.
Circuit
4729 S. State St.
Ebony
5125 S. Calumet Ave.
Headlines & Pictures
3522 S. State St.
New Vistas
3663 E. 47th St.
Negro Story (quar.)
4019 Vincennes Ave.
Negro Traveler (bi-mo.)
6312 Cottage Grove Ave.

LOUISIANA

New Orleans:

The Negro South
1241 Dryades St.

MICHIGAN

Detroit:

Millinery Digest
2336 Brush St.

NEW YORK

New York City:

African
101 W. 125th St.
Congress Vue
307 Lenox Ave.
N. A. A. C. P. Bulletin
20 W. 40th St.
Our World
1440 Broadway
Tan Town Stories (bi-mo.)
101 W. 125th St.

WEST VIRGINIA

Charleston:

Color
1032 Bridge Rd.

LIST C.—NEWS-GATHERING AGENCIES

Associated Negro Press (3 times a wk.)

3507 South Parkway

Chicago 15, Ill.

Calvin's News Service (bi-wkly.)

360 West 125th Street

New York 27, N.Y.

*Continental Press*⁴

2703 East 22nd Street

Kansas City, Mo.

Great Eastern News Corp. (wkly.)

208 West 151st Street, Suite A38

New York, N.Y.

Howard News Syndicate (wkly.)

1146 Keo Way

Des Moines, Ia.

Independent Press Service (semi-wkly.) (Serving Ted Yates Publications)

48 West 48th Street

New York, N.Y.

*National Negro Features*⁴

478 West 159th Street

New York 32, N.Y.

Negro Digest News Service (wkly.)

5619 South State Street

Chicago 21, Ill.

Negro Labor News Service (irregularly)

312 West 125th Street

New York 27, N.Y.

Negro News Service (wkly.) (temp. suspended)

3612 Elliot Avenue

Minneapolis, Minn.

Negro Press Bureau (semi-wkly.)

3227 Central Avenue

Los Angeles, Cal.

Pacific News Service (wkly.)

617 North Main Street

Los Angeles, Cal.

⁴ Information relative to frequency of issue not supplied.

Progress News Service (semi-mo.)
80 Wickliffe Street
Newark, N.J.
Prudential News Agency (semi-wkly.)
(suspended)
710 Florida Avenue, N.W.
Washington 1, D.C.
United News Company (wkly.)
6306 Rhodes Avenue
Chicago, Ill.
Victory News Service (wkly.)
839 West Walnut Street
Milwaukee 5, Wis.
White Newspaper Syndicate (wkly.)
P.O. Box 58
Hamtramck 12, Mich.

Newspaper	Circulation
<i>Pittsburgh Courier</i>	257,519
<i>Afro-American Newspapers</i> (a chain of five)	239,596
<i>Chicago Defender</i>	202,631
<i>Amsterdam News</i> (N.Y.)	84,574
<i>Norfolk Journal and Guide</i> ..	68,772
<i>Houston Informer</i> (Tex.) (a chain of four)	52,199
<i>Kansas City Call</i> (Mo.)	35,993
<i>People's Voice</i> (N.Y.)	29,243
<i>Michigan Chronicle</i>	25,868
<i>Cleveland Call and Post</i>	23,637
<i>Louisiana Weekly</i>	19,443
<i>Louisville Defender</i> (Ky.) ...	16,571
<i>Los Angeles Sentinel</i>	15,892
<i>Philadelphia Tribune</i>	12,256
Total	1,084,194

PUBLISHERS' REPRESENTATIVES

There are two firms of publishers' representatives handling advertisements and other business for the larger Negro newspapers, both located in New York, with branch offices in other cities. Each represents a different group of newspapers.

The Associated Publishers is located at 562 Fifth Avenue, New York, with a branch office at 139 Cadillac Square in Detroit. The other, Interstate United Newspapers, Inc., is located at 545 Fifth Avenue, New York, with branch offices at 25 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, and the Lawyers Building, Detroit.

WHITE HOUSE CORRESPONDENT

After much agitation by the Negro press during the past decade, a Negro was admitted to the White House Correspondents Association in Washington, D.C., in 1944.

No Negro newspaper correspondent has as yet been admitted to the Congressional Press Gallery Association of reporters, despite agitation by the Negro press.

AUDIT BUREAU OF CIRCULATIONS

The following Negro newspapers are members of the Audit Bureau of Circulations:

WAR CORRESPONDENTS

Shortly following the declaration of war on the Axis by the United States and the landing of the first American troops on foreign soil, Negro newspapers took steps to have some of their reporters duly accredited by the War Department as foreign correspondents.

In the spring of 1942 arrangements were completed for the first reporter of the Negro press to cover the war fronts, and thereafter about twenty duly-accredited correspondents covered the various theaters of war for the press. They were sent by their individual newspapers.

The reporters were given the same treatment by the War Department and the various army and navy service units as those of the white press. None of them reported any acts of discrimination against them on the part of government officials.

They traveled in the same rooms, ate at the same tables, and were accorded the same privileges as those of white reporters on ships, planes, and at their posts abroad.

TRADE UNION SHOPS

Nine Negro newspapers have signed contracts with their employees who

organized units of the American Newspaper Guild. They are the *Amsterdam News* and the *People's Voice*, both in New York City; the *Chicago Defender*,

the *Pittsburgh Courier*, the *Los Angeles Sentinel*, and the *Afro-American*. chain of newspapers.

STAGE, SCREEN, AND RADIO

THE BROADWAY THEATER

By Mabel Roane

Executive Secretary, Negro Actors' Guild

During the years 1944, 1945, and the early part of 1946, Negroes appeared in thirty-seven Broadway productions. Roles allotted Negro actors in many of these productions have indicated a trend toward unprecedented liberalism, as revealed by the use of racially mixed casts with Negroes in principal parts, and the casting of Negroes in unsteretyped roles.

This trend is attributed to the efforts of interested organizations, public enlightenment on racial problems, and the growing proficiency of the actors themselves.

These factors are believed to be important elements in the development of the trend which has resulted in opportunities for Negroes to rise above stereotyped characterizations, against which many have protested, and to demonstrate their histrionic versatility.

Negro actors were divided in their opinions on the fight launched for better roles by persons and groups outside the acting profession. One school of opinion was that these protests hurt the Negro actor in that some roles originally written for Negro performers were "written out" by the producers in order to avoid unfavorable criticism by Negroes. Moreover, in some instances, members of this school point out, whites have been blacked up to play the part of Negroes, especially in the movie plays.

They point out further that the Negro has been given less chance to appear on the stage since these protests have been emphasized. They believe that the growing intelligence and proficiency of the Negro actor himself is the best antidote against the stereotyped roles of menial, ignorant servant parts, or the superstitious and silly parts frequently assigned.

The other school of thought believes that the sacrifice of a few roles by Negro actors is worth the progress that will come to the race by playing more dignified roles. They point out that even though the financial standing of the Negro actors as a group may be lessened for a while by their being given less opportunity to act in the more dignified roles, the fight should continue, for the economic setback would be only temporary.

They are against the Negro actor's accepting any stereotyped roles at all, and they also make a strong plea to those actors to refuse to act before segregated audiences or in theaters where Negroes are not permitted to attend. Some actors have taken this stand themselves, notably among whom are Paul Robeson, Lena Horne, and Hazel Scott.

Servant roles per se are not the targets of the protesters, they contend, but such roles as portray the inferior characteristics.

A record of the Broadway shows with Negro-white casts and all-Negro casts follows. (The actors named are Negroes unless otherwise stated.)

**PLAYS WITH RACIALLY MIXED
CASTS: 1944-1945**

Othello: Margaret Webster's production of the Shakespearean tragedy opened at the Shubert Theater in November, 1943, and played throughout the theater season until the summer of 1944, when it rested, going on tour in the fall. It broke all running records for a Shakespearean drama. In the stellar role as Othello was Paul Robeson, who played opposite Uta Hagen, white, who took the part of Desdemona, his wife. In May, 1945, the show returned to New York and played at the City Center for a short run. The play was the first Shakespearean drama to star a Negro on Broadway. Robeson was awarded the Good Diction Medal of the American Academy of Arts and Letters and the National Institute of Arts and Letters. The theater magazine, *Billboard*, gave him an award for giving the most outstanding dramatic performance of 1943-1944.

Tropical Review: Presentation of West Indian dances, by Katherine Dunham and her dance group, opened at the Century Theater for a three-week engagement. Miss Dunham, director; Bobby Capo, Cuban singer, and the Dowdy Quartet, were feature attractions.

Decision: Opened February 2, 1944, at the Belasco Theater; had several months' run with Georgia Burke playing the role of housekeeper, a "straight," intelligent part. Her part was that of the housekeeper who had gone to work in a defense plant to help in the war effort, but who continued to live in the house where she had worked, as a member of the family, and took the side of the union against her employer. Herbert

Junior played the part of an intelligent worker in the plant.

Chicken Every Sunday: Opened on April 5, 1944, at the Henry Miller Theater; played over a year on Broadway and then on the road. The Broadway company included Viola Dean, in the part of a maid, who was intelligent, although comical.

The Searching Wind: Opened April 12, 1944, at the Fulton Theater and enjoyed a long run; included Mercedes Gilbert, in the role of a dignified housekeeper.

Hickory Stick: Opened on May 8, 1944, at the Mansfield Theater, with Albert Pepwell and Violet Kennedy as students in the classroom with white students, both doing lines similar to those of the whites. Short run.

Career Angel: Opened on May 23, 1944, at the National Theater; included young Dorn Alexander in an interesting, intelligent portrayal of a little boy.

According to Law: Opened on June 1, 1944, at the Mansfield Theater, with Wardell Saunders in the role of a citizen. A racial problem play having a run of a few weeks.

Down to Miami: Opened at the Ambassador Theater on September 11, 1944; included Anna Franklin in a maid's part, a typical stereotype. Had a short run.

Bloomer Girl: Opened at the Shubert Theater on October 5, 1944 and was still playing at the end of May, 1946; included Dooley Wilson, Richard Huey, and Hubert Dilworth in interesting and entertaining musical spots.

Men to the Sea: Opened at the National Theater on October 3, 1944, and had a run of several weeks; included Maurice Ellis as a merchant seaman and Mildred Smith as his wife, who shared an apartment with several sailors' wives, the others being white.

The Perfect Marriage: Opened at the Barrymore Theater on October

26, 1944, with Evelyn Davis in the maid's part, which was intelligent comedy with no dialect or exaggerations. Ran a few months.

No Way Out: Opened at the Cort Theater on October 30, 1944, with John Marriott playing the part of a dignified butler and family confidant in a mystery story. It lasted a little more than a week.

Dear Ruth: Opened at the Henry Miller Theater, on December 13, 1944, with Pauline Myers in the maid's part, intelligent and amusing. Still running as of May 30, 1946, and has a second company on the road and one in London.

Laughing Room Only: Opened at the Winter Garden, December 23, 1944, with Ida James, Rhythm Red, and Tom Fletcher. An Olsen and Johnson musical comedy. Ran almost a year.

Sing Out, Sweet Land: Opened at the International Theater, December 27, 1944, with a Negro spiritual ensemble directed by Juanita Hall, and including Rhoda Boggs, Claretta Freeman, Massine Patterson, Hercules Armstrong, Harry Bolden, Oscar Brooks, James Gordon, Virtes Reese, Wilson Woodbeck, William Sol, and a part for Juanita Hall as "Watermelon Woman." Ran about three months.

On the Town: Opened at the Adelphi Theater, December 28, 1944, and moved to the Martin Beck, July 30, 1945, where it stayed until March, 1946. The musical director of the orchestra was Everett Lee, and the large cast included Royce Wallace in a singing and dancing role, and several Negroes in the ensemble and chorus. No caricature performances. The Negroes were integrated throughout the cast, playing roles exactly like those of the white actors.

Hasty Heart: Opened at the Hudson Theater on January 3, 1945 and had a short run; included Earl Jones, who had an unusual portrayal of an island native in which he panto-

mimed and uttered just one word, although it was not a caricature role.

The Tempest (a Margaret Webster production of Shakespeare's play): Opened at the Alvin Theater on January 25, 1945, with Canada Lee doing a difficult portrayal of Caliban, a man-beast character. Ran for a few months, went on the road for a few months, then came back to the New York City Center for a few weeks before closing.

Signature: Opened at the Forest Theater, February 14, 1945, with Morris (Chic) McKenney in a small part. Had a short run.

And Be My Love: Opened at the National Theater, on February 21, 1945; included Viola Dean in the role of a maid. Had a short run.

Round Trip: Opened at the Biltmore Theater, May 29, 1945; included Viola Dean in the role of a dignified maid. Had a short run.

Deep Are the Roots: Opened at the Fulton Theater on September 26, 1945, and was still running at the end of May, 1946. It included Helen Martin, maid, Evelyn Ellis as the housekeeper, and Gordon Heath, portraying a college graduate returning from overseas as a lieutenant to his southern home. The theme was based on the South's race problem. It was hailed as the first play of its kind on Broadway, and met with great success. It included expressions of love for the Negro veteran by the white daughter of the household, but there were no affectionate embraces between the two.

The Secret Room: Opened at the Royale Theater on November 7, 1945, with Juanita Hall playing the part of an intelligent maid. A mystery story which ran for about three weeks.

Beggars Are Coming to Town: Opened at the Coronet Theater on October 27, 1945, with Louis Gilbert in the cast. Had a short run.

The Rugged Path: Opened at the

Plymouth Theater on November 10, 1945, for a run of several months; included Emory Richardson in the role of a typical butler.

Strange Fruit: Opened at the Royale Theater on November 29, 1945, in the face of much conflict and opposition from the Negro press. The play ran a few weeks and closed in the face of unrelenting criticisms launched by Negroes against the theme, and by white critics against the verbose script. Negroes were divided in their opinions of the theme of the play, as they were against the book from which it was taken. Some held that Negro womanhood was degraded by having a college-trained Negro girl sacrifice herself for the love of a weak, apparently worthless white man. Others contended that the theme was realistic, and that it was beneficial in that it gave a picture of degeneration of the South in its prejudice against Negroes. The cast included Jane White in the stellar role, Juano Hernandez, Doris Block, Alonzo Bosan, Herbert Junior, Dorothy Carter, Earl Jones, Hanson Elkins, Edna Thomas, Ken Renard, Juan Jose Hernandez, George B. Oliver, and Elsworth Wright.

Showboat: Opened at the Ziegfeld Theater, January 5, 1946; a musical show with Will Vodery supplying choral ensemble of Negroes and Kenneth Spencer in the part of Joe, with Bill Smith understudying and doing parts during Mr. Spencer's illness. Pearl Primus, the dancer, was the Dahomey Queen, with Alma Sutton, Claude Marchant, Assota Marshall and Tom Bowman doing parts. Still running May 30, 1946.

Jeb: A play showing racial inequality in the South. Had a short run. The cast included Morris McKenney, Charles Holland, Carolyn Hill Stewart, Wardell Saunders, Ossie Davis, P. Jay Sidney, Percy Verwayen, G. Harry Bolden, Laura Bowman, Reri Grist, Ruby Dee, Rudolph

Whittaker, Christopher Bennett, and Maurice Ellis. The story involved a returning Negro veteran who was denied the opportunity to work at a job which he had learned in the Army.

Flamingo Road: Opened at the Belasco on March 19, 1946, and played for about two weeks. Olvestor Polk played the role of butler and Evelyn Davis that of a maid.

PLAYS WITH ALL-NEGRO CASTS: 1944, 1945, AND EARLY 1946

Porgy and Bess: Opened at the Martin Beck on February 28, 1943, and played there for seven months, then toured the road for a year. Returned to New York in 1944 to play at the City Center for nearly a year, closing in January, 1945. A new company was formed by the Camp Shows Division of the USO to tour the camps at home and war theaters abroad. This company closed in April, 1946. Originally starred were Anne Brown and Todd Duncan. Etta Moten later filled the female lead role. Later, at the resignation of Todd Duncan, William Franklin took the male lead. Other roles were taken by Georgette Harvey, Catherine Ayers, Musa Williams, Harriet Jackson, Edward Matthews, Avon Long, Jerry Laws, Henry Davis, Alan Hubbard, William C. Smith, George Randol, Warren Coleman, Charles Colman, and Leslie Gray.

Anna Lucasta: First produced by the American Negro Theatre, an amateur theater group in Harlem; then it was taken over by a white producer and opened at the Mansfield Theater on Broadway on August 30, 1944. Was still running at the end of May, 1946. The play was the first which did not deal with a racial theme to be played by an entirely Negro cast on Broadway. A second company was formed and played simultaneously in Chicago for a long

run; then took to the road. Hilda Simms was originally starred in the Broadway production. She was later sent to Chicago and the Broadway role given to Valerie Black. The male lead roles were taken by Frederick O'Neal and Warren Coleman. Other actors were Theodore Smith, Edith Whitman, Rosetta LeNoire, Inge Hardison, Georgia Burke, Georgette Harvey, Alberta Perkins, John Proctor, Roy Allen, George Randol, Frank Wilson, Hubert Henry, Milton Wood, Monty Hawley, Alvin Childress, Claire Jay, Claire Leyba, Slim Thompson, Emory Richardson, Lionel Managas, William Dillard, Canada Lee, Lance Taylor, John Tate, Duke Williams, Charles Swain, Gerard Beverly, and Earl Hyman.

Carmen Jones: Opened at the Broadway Theater on December 2, 1943, and had a continuous run, playing on the road and at New York City Center for several runs during three seasons, the last performance there being scheduled for September, 1946. The play is a modernized version of Bizet's opera, "Carmen," with the scenes and characterizations changed. The theme, similar to the original opera, concerns a triangular love affair between Carmen, a heartless, fascinating girl, and two men. In "Carmen Jones," Carmen was a parachute factory worker and her lovers were a prize fighter and a soldier. Leading feminine roles were taken interchangeably by Muriel Rahn and Muriel Smith, and later by Inez Matthews and Urylee Leonardos. Male leads were taken by Napoleon Reed, Luther Saxon, and Glenn Bryant. The other stellar female role, Cindy Lou (Michaela in the Bizet score) was taken by Carlotta Franzell, alternating with Elton J. Warren. Other actors were Robert Clarke, William Woolfolk, George Willis, Elijah Hodges, P. Jay Sidney, Fredye Marshall, Alford

Pierre, Ethel White, Sibol Cain, Ruth Crumpton, William Dillard, Sheldon B. Hoskins, Randolph Sawyer, Melvin Howard, Tony Fleming, Jr., and others.

St. Louis Woman: Opened at the Martin Beck on March 30, 1946, with a long run assured. Still running at the end of May, 1946. Ruby Hill and Rex Ingram had the stellar roles. The story concerns a triangular love affair involving a jockey, a saloon owner, and a woman of easy morals. The theme was criticized by elements of the Negro press for its "degraded" characterizations of all of the Negro roles. Other actors in the play were the Nicholas Brothers, Harold and Fayard; Pearl Bailey, June Hawkins, Juanita Hall, Robert Pope, Louis Sharp, Elwood Smith, Merritt Smith, Charles Welch, Maude Russell, J. Mardo Brown, Milton J. Williams, Frank Green, Joseph Eady, Yvonne Coleman, Herbert Coleman, Lorenzo Fuller, Milton Wood, Creighton Thompson, and Carrington Lewis.

Blue Holiday: Opened May 18, 1944, at the Belasco, and ran for one week. A musical pageant featuring excerpts from former Negro plays and musicals. Important roles were taken by Ethel Waters, Bill (Bojangles) Robinson, Willie Bryant, Mary Lou Williams, the Hall Johnson Choir, and Josh White.

Memphis Bound: Opened at the Broadway Theater May 24, 1945, and closed June 23, 1945. A musical comedy, featuring Bill (Bojangles) Robinson, Ethel Waters, Avon Long, Ida James, Ann Robinson, Thelma Carpenter, and Sheila Guys. Other participants were the Delta Rhythm Boys, Ada Brown, Frank Wilson, Billy Daniels, Edith Wilson, William C. Smith, Timothy Grace, Oscar Plante, Joy Marmore, Harriet Jackson, Charles Welch, William Dillard, Georgia Ann Timmons, and Mariliene Strong.

Carib Song: Opened at the Adelphi Sept. 27, 1945. An interpretation in Caribbean dances by Katherine Dunham and her dancing group. Other actors and dancers taking part were Mercedes Gilbert, Harriet Jackson, Mabel Standord Lewis, William Franklin, Avon Long, Elsie Benjamin, LaRoas Estrada, Tommy Gomez, Vanoye Aikens, Lucille Ellis, Lauwanne Ingram, Martha Kitt, Ora Leak, Mary Lewis, Gloria Mitchell, Eulabel Riley, Priscilla Stephens, James Alexander, Byron Cutler, John Diggs, Jesse Hawkins, Lenwood Morris, William C. Smith, Charles Welch, Norman Coker, Richardson Jackson, Eddy Clay, Roxie Foster, Eugene Lee Robinson, Enid Williams, and Julio Mendez.

STAGE TECHNICIANS, ACTORS, AND MUSICAL ARTISTS

A few Negroes did outstanding work in other capacities than acting in the legitimate theater. There were a few assistant stage managers, dancing coaches, choreographers, scenic designers, and writers of musical scores.

Perry Watkins was the most outstanding in scenic designing. He designed scenes for several outstanding plays performed by white actors, racially mixed casts, and all-Negro shows, as well as sets for the National Broadcasting Company.

Henry LeTang was the dance creator and instructor for several shows, and has a number of outstanding white as well as Negro actors as his students. He was given an award by *Song Hit* magazine for being the most outstanding dance director of 1945.

RADIO

A large number of Negroes have taken parts in radio plays during 1944 and 1945, and a number of musical units, both voice and instrumental, have been presented periodically in radio programs. Outstanding concert artists have appeared with symphony orchestras, among the most noted being Marian Anderson, contralto; Todd Duncan, baritone; Anne Brown, soprano; Dorothy Maynor, and others.

The following performers have appeared most frequently in speaking roles in various radio plays, some of which were presented weekly throughout the year on national radio chains:

Gordon Heath for a period was an announcer for a radio station, in addition to taking parts in plays. Georgia

Burke has had roles over a period of seventeen years, playing in a number of radio serials and on other popular programs. Georgette Harvey has done similar work over fourteen years.

Juano Hernandez, for the past ten years, has done all kinds of characterizations over the air, speaking in various languages and dialects, among them being Turkish, Japanese, Spanish, Russian, Czech, French, and Burmese. He has appeared in more than thirty programs on the big radio chains.

Others appearing frequently in radio shows were Lulu King, Gee Gee James, Musa Williams, Amanda Randolph, Lillian Randolph, Canada Lee, and fourteen-year-old Dorn Alexander.

USO CAMP SHOWS

Negro entertainers in more than 200 United Service Organizations Camp Show acts helped to maintain and boost morale of servicemen at home and in foreign posts during World War II.

The shows were financed by the National War Fund.

Appearing before audiences of both Negro and white servicemen were a total of 414 Negro artists, since the

inception of USO Camp Shows in 1942. Negro units had presentations of six circuits, which included every theater of military and naval operations. Negro Camp Show units were studded with the names of outstanding stars as well as those of less noted but equally eager performers.

In the early days of the Red Circuit a total of 68 entertainers appeared in four different units, including Noble Sissle, Eubie Blake, Avis Andrews, Butterbeans and Susie, Al Sear's orchestra, lines of chorines, Emory Evans, and various dance and novelty teams.

The White Circuit boasted of such names as Lee Norman and his orchestra, Herbie Cowans's orchestra and the Peters Sisters, Victoria Vigal, Al and Billie Richards, Earl and Frances, Fetaque Sanders, and others.

Negro artists who toured the Blue Circuit of early days included Minta Cato, Garner and Wilson, Ann Lewis, Vance and Lowry and others, comprising a total of 24 performers in 1942.

During 1943 and 1944, the Red and White Circuits were discontinued and replaced by the Victory Circuit, which to date has comprised a total of 168 entertainers in four different units. Outstanding performers among these units were Freddie and Flo, Margie Hall, Sandy Burns, Glenn and Jenkins, Spider Bruce, John Mason, John Vigal, Neal and Hutchie, Spic and Span, Chuck and Chuckles, Patterson and Jackson, John Cooper, Laura Watson, Smiles and Smiles, Strawberry Russel and Julia, John Hopkins, and others.

A total of 140 artists, in 28 units of five entertainers each, made up the Blue Circuit in 1943 and 1944, and included such names as George Williams and Roscoe, Dyla, Bobby Vincson, Alston and Young, Duke and Bertie Pilgrim, Hattie Green, Eddie Matthews, Jean Prater, Reuben Brown, Smitty and Dotty, Alberta Prime, Alston Cole, Rosalie Young, Florence Parham, Derniece Harris, and others.

The first Negro Overseas Circuit was organized in September, 1943, when Willie Bryant, Kenneth Spencer, Betty Logan, Julie Gardner, and Juan Ramirez made an eleven-week tour of the Caribbean area.

Following this initial overseas tour, a second unit headed by Kenneth Spencer, with Julie Gardner, Freddie and Flo, and Ann Lewis, made a six-month tour of the South Pacific, playing for eight weeks on Guadalcanal, during which time they met up with the Jack Benny-Carole Landis unit and put on a gala double-header, playing to an estimated 15,000 enthusiastic G.I.'s.

At about the same time, another unit of five members, headed by Doc Wheeler, with Iva Bowen, Jack McGuire, Ethel Wise, and Sandra Lee, visited North Africa, Corsica, Algiers, and Italy.

During the latter part of 1944 another unit of six members, headed by Chauncey Lee, with Cora Green, Dave and Witty, Dodo Proctor, and Lillian Thomas, toured North Africa, Persia, and the Far East. In another unit, headed by Alberta Hunter, were Taps Miller, the Three Rhythm Rascals and Mae Gandy, who flew to the China-Burma-India area. In the fall of 1944, eighteen entertainers comprising the Gershwin opera, "Porgy and Bess," headed for the South Pacific and entertained servicemen in that area.

An all-Negro concert unit, the first to be organized by USO Camp Shows, and headed by the famous Negro soprano, Caterina Jarboro, appeared in Italy and in the European zone of operations.

The first Hospital Circuit unit composed of Negroes went on tour January 15, 1945, and included Miller and Lee, Fetaque Sanders, the three Spencer Sisters, Little Jessie James, Audrey Thomas, Martha Please, "Honey Boy" Thompson, and Eubie Blake.

Since the inception of the overseas Fox Hole Circuit in 1943, a total of sixty-four entertainers have comprised the various touring units.

Dick Campbell was director of the Negro division of the USO Camp Shows.

AMERICAN NEGRO THEATRE

The American Negro Theatre, founded in June, 1940, by Abram Hill, was the most outstanding of the Negro little theater groups. Its plays were first staged in the basement of the 136th Street Public Library in Harlem. The group attained national prominence when one of its productions, "Anna Lucasta," was produced on Broadway and had one of the most successful runs of any play of its kind.

In its five-year history it presented eight new plays. The group is a nonprofit, co-operative organization. Annual subscriptions from sponsors helped to underwrite the cost of its productions, and it received a small revenue from the production of "Anna Lucasta" on Broadway.

In 1944 the Rockefeller Foundation contributed \$9500, which enabled the group to establish and maintain classes

for student actors and technicians and to help pay for productions. In January, 1946, the General Education Board contributed \$12,000 for its program and its projected theater and school building.

Most of the group's acting personnel is nonprofessional. For the past two seasons it has recommended actors for Negro roles in Broadway productions.

NEGRO ACTORS' GUILD OF AMERICA

The Negro Actors' Guild of America was founded in 1937 to aid destitute Negro actors. In addition to its welfare activities, the guild serves as a clearing house for Negro talent, and an aid to producers and agents in search of Negro actors.

Funds for its activities are donated by theater unions and the Theater Authority. Its operating expenses are derived from tickets sold for social affairs presented periodically. Mrs. Mabel Roane is executive secretary and Noble Sissle is president. Offices are at 1674 Broadway, New York City.

RACE RELATIONS SURVEY BY THE WRITERS' WAR BOARD

The Writers' War Board, meeting at the Barbizon-Plaza Hotel in New York, January 11, 1945, to promote racial and religious tolerance, issued a pamphlet, "How Writers Perpetuate Stereotypes." Rex Stout, white, is chairman of the board. The board and its committee to combat race hatred came to the conclusion that the writers of the United States, because of their habitual employment of "stock characters," were unconsciously fostering and encouraging group prejudice.

In a digest of a survey made by the Columbia University Bureau of Applied Social Science, the following points were brought out:

Popular Fiction

Racial stereotypes more often,

more intensely, and more offensively are presented in popular light fiction than in any other medium of entertainment. In magazine stories, Anglo-Saxons received better treatment than minority and foreign groups: in frequency of appearance, importance in story, approval and disapproval, status and occupation, and in traits.

Where authors brought in menials, racketeers, thieves, gamblers, shady night club proprietors, and crooked prize fight managers, they were seldom Anglo-Saxon characters. In 185 short stories read in popular magazines, only 16 characters were Negroes and 10 were Jews, and subtle dis-

paragement of minority characters was noted throughout the 185 stories read.

Forty-two percent of the Anglo-Saxon housewives (characters) had maids and other servants, while only thirteen percent of non-Anglo-Saxons had them.

"Heart" motivations, such as love, marriage, affection, emotional security, adventure, patriotism, idealism, and justice were attributed to Anglo-Saxon characters, while "head" motives, such as interest mostly in money, self-advancement, power, and dominance were attributed to non-Anglo-Saxon ones.

The Stage

The theater appears to be the more liberal medium of entertainment in avoidance of racial stereotypes and in pioneering toward new and more generous concepts. Some obnoxious and persistent racial stereotypes have been popularized in the theater, however, notably the "Uncle Tom" type of Negro, the quarrelsome Jewish business man, and the "stage Irishman."

Films

The movie, or film, industry was the worst offender. An analysis of 100 motion pictures involving either Negro themes or Negro characters of more than passing significance, produced this score: stereotyped and disparaging, 75; neutral or unobjectionable, 13; favorable, 12.

Hollywood was reported to have become aware recently of the stereotype and the social impact of gags, lines, situations, inferences which heretofore were judged only by the criterion of amusement. Of late, the film studios have occasionally done better.

Comic Cartoon Books

Before the war the comic books had drawn some critical fire by the use of racial stereotypes. They apparently took a commendably progressive stand by treating the problem of militarism in Germany realistically in cartoon form and repeatedly portraying the heroism of American Negro fighters in this war.

Radio Programs

The broadcasting industry has been arguing for years as to whether the "Amos 'n Andy" program helps or hurts the Negro race. Some Negroes do, some do not, object to the series. Another continuing argument revolves around "Rochester" on the Jack Benny program. This presentation is good-natured and pictures Rochester as quick-witted and wise, yet it is stereotyped on all the usual counts—addiction to drink, dice, wenching and razors.

Radio was reported to give Negroes the fairest treatment of any mass medium. "However, heroes and heroines in radio drama tend invariably to be white, Protestant, and Anglo-Saxon," the report stated. "They practically never attend either Catholic mass or a Jewish Temple."

Summary

Impressions of the Writers' War Board as summed up from the Columbia survey follow:

The stage is the most liberal of all the media in presenting minority characters sympathetically and honestly.

The novel is, like the theater, in the forefront of liberalism.

The motion picture has continued to make disparaging presentations of minorities, but there has been some improvement.

The radio ranges from innocu-

ous to sympathetic, despite some invidious stereotypes.

The comic cartoon has accorded the greatest recognition and credit to the Negro fighter.

The press in the North is, with some notorious exceptions, generally fair, although not zealous where minorities are concerned. About sixty percent of the southern press is considered anti-Negro despite all disclaimers.

Advertising copy is openly and self-admittedly addicted to the Anglo-Saxon myth because of reliance on "snob appeal."

The short story uses the most stereotypes, and is the worst offender.

ARTISTS APPEARING IN RECITAL AT CARNEGIE HALL, N. Y.

(During the 1944 and 1945 Seasons)

Winifred Watson, singer
Roland Hayes, baritone
Gentry (Nebraska) Steele, tenor
Marian Anderson, contralto
Duke Ellington, orchestra
Edward Walker, tenor
Piano students of Sidney Townsend
Dance recital, African Academy of
Arts and Research, dance program
Lionel Hampton, orchestra

Will Anthony Madden, dramatic reader

Elton E. Bean, lyric baritone
Joyce Robinson, mezzo-soprano
The Negro Drama Group
Dean Dixon, conductor
Uretha Cadogan, singer
Joseph Lipscombe, singer
Docksey Snellings, baritone
Hazel Scott, pianist
Ruth Attaway and group, drama
Gertrude Lucas, soprano
Lucille Peoples, singer
Bernice Woodruffe, soprano
Howard R. Johnson Choir

ARTISTS APPEARING IN RECITAL AT TOWN HALL, N. Y.

(During the 1944 and 1945 Seasons)

(This list is not complete)

Nadine Waters, soprano
Ellabell Davis, soprano
Bettye Vorhees, contralto
Coreania Hayman, soprano
Carol Brice, contralto
Aubrey Pankey, baritone
Muriel Rahn, soprano
Joseph Lockett, pianist
Mayme Richardson, soprano
Docksey Snellings, baritone
Olyve P. Hopkins, soprano
Novella McGhee, soprano
Kenneth Spencer, baritone

SONGWRITERS OF POPULAR MUSIC

By J. C. Johnson

A songwriter is one who creates the words or the music or both to a song. He may not have any musical background whatever. If he composes only the words of a song, he is known as a lyricist, or author. If he composes only the music, he is known as a tunesmith or composer. If he composes both, he is known as an author and composer.

There are several Negro songwriters who work at their trade exclusively as a means of livelihood. They have no orchestra to popularize their products. They do not write symphonies or operas, and do not arrange musical scores for orchestras to play.

Negro songwriters have composed shuffles, stomps, Charleston rhythms and slow drags. They originated the buck and wing, cake walk, ragtime, jazz, blues, and swing, and descriptive dances of all types. The spirituals, commonly considered by European authorities as being America's only original contribution to the world of music, were originated by the Negro, who is considered to have a natural instinct for rhythmic syncopation and high-spirited imagination.

Leading all Negro songwriters with the largest sale of records and sheet music, conceded to be the biggest cur-

rent hit of the first quarter of 1946, is Bennie Benjemen with his "Oh What It Seemed to Be." It has continued for approximately ten weeks, more or less, on the hit parade.

Lucky Roberts previously held a similar hit parade spot for many weeks with his "Moonlight Cocktail." Walter Bishop has been on the bigger networks with his "Surprise Party," and credit is due Billy Moore for "Patience and Fortitude."

Some songs come and go but the old standard songs will always maintain their distinctive dignity and superior importance in comparison to current best sellers.

LEADING SONGWRITERS

NOTE: The following list gives composer and/or author, or co-writer, and one or two of their most successful compositions.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| J. C. Johnson | Maceo Pinkard |
| "Trav'lin' All Alone" | "Sweet Georgia Brown" |
| "Don't Let Your Love Go Wrong" | "Gimme a Little Kiss, Will You, Huh?" |
| Andy Razaf | Donald Heywood |
| "Ain't Misbehavin'" | "I'm Comin', Virginia" |
| "Honeysuckle Rose" | "Harlem Moon" |
| Bennie Benjemen | Turner Layton |
| "Oh What It Seemed to Be" | "After You've Gone" |
| "When the Lights Go On Again" | "Strut, Miss Lizzie" |
| Lucky Roberts | Clarence Williams |
| "Moonlight Cocktail" | "Sugar Blues" |
| "Massachusetts" | "Gulf Coast Blues" |
| Edgar Sampson | Duke Ellington |
| "Stompin' at the Savoy" | "Sophisticated Lady" |
| "Don't Be That Way" | "In My Solitude" |
| Spencer Williams | Joe Gray |
| "I Ain't Got Nobody" | "Runnin' Wild" |
| "Basin Street" | Count Basie |
| Shelton Brooks | "One O'Clock Jump" |
| "Some of These Days" | "Sent for You Yesterday" |
| "Darktown Strutters' Ball" | Chris Smith |
| Walter Bishop | "Got My Habits On" |
| "Surprise Party" | "Ballin' the Jack" |
| "The Devil Sat Down and Cried" | Claude Hopkins |
| W. C. Handy | "Cryin' My Heart Out for You" |
| "St. Louis Blues" | "Is It So?" |
| "Memphis Blues" | Joe Jordan |
| James P. Johnson | "Lovie Joe" |
| "Charleston" | "Sweetie Dear" |
| "If I Could Be with You One Hour Tonight" | Eubie Blake |
| | "I'm Just Wild about Harry" |
| | "Memories of You" |
| | Don Redmon |
| | "Chant of the Weed" |
| | "How'm I Doin'?" |
| | Noble Sissle |
| | "Love Will Find a Way" |
| | "Bandanna Days" |
| | Rosamond Johnson |
| | "Lift Every Voice and Sing" |
| | "Bleeding Moon" |
| | J. Tim Brynm |
| | "Please Go 'Way and Let Me Sleep" |
| | "Camel Walk" |
| | Eddie Green |
| | "A Good Man Is Hard to Find" |
| | Fletcher Henderson |
| | "It's Wearin' Me Down" |
| | Porter Grainger |
| | "Tain't Nobody's Business If I Do" |

- Una Mae Carlisle
 "Walkin' by the River"
 "I See a Million People"
 Charles L. Cooke
 "This is Drummer's Day"
 Joe Trent
 "Muddy Water"
 Arthur Gibbs
 "I Got the Fever"
 Leon Rene
 "When the Swallows Come Back to Capistrano"
 Phil Moore
 "Shoo Shoo Baby"
 Perry Bradford
 "Crazy Blues"
 "That Thing Called Love"
 Billy Moore
 "Patience and Fortitude"
 Ford Dabney
 "Shine"
 Charles Carpenter
 "You Can Depend on Me"
- "You Taught Me to Love Again"
 Wilbur Sweatman
 "Down Home Rag"
 Fred Norman
 "Smokehouse"
 Langston Hughes
 "Rationing Blues"
 "The Negro Speaks of Rivers"
 Mercer Cook
 "Stop the Sun, Stop the Moon"
 Clarence Muse
 "Sleepy Time down South"
 *Thomas (Fats) Waller
 "The Joint is Jumpin'"
 "The Spider and the Fly"
 *Cecil Mack
 "Old Fashioned Love"
 "Good Morning, Carrie"
 *Mike Jackson
 "Knock Me a Kiss"

* Deceased.

MOTION PICTURES

By Leon H. Hardwick

Hollywood Publicist and Executive Secretary of the International Film & Radio Guild, Inc.
Campaign for Better Roles

The years 1944 and 1945 saw many happenings involving Negroes in the motion picture industry, yet it is doubtful whether any took precedence over the battle against racial stereotyping in films, which reached its peak during this period. For several years, Negroes have been protesting against the practice of typing Negro players as menials and buffoons, a tradition that has been followed ever since the establishment of the American movie industry.

The most forceful protests against this practice came from Negro servicemen overseas. These men reported that they saw the astonishment of people in Asia, Africa, and Europe at discovering that the average American Negro soldier was a normally intelligent, self-assured individual, rather than the ignorant and illiterate buffoon habitually portrayed in American motion pictures.

Among the civilian population, too, there were rising objections to this practice. The stereotyping of Negro movie actors created interest among various organizations throughout the country, including the Writers' War Board, the Hollywood Writers' Mobilization, and various segments of the Negro and liberal white press.

However, the two groups which perhaps made the most concentrated campaign in Hollywood were the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and the International Film and Radio Guild.

This pair led the fight against the contemplated screening of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, resulting in that studio's decision to shelve the project. The two organizations also protested against the Broadway staging of "St. Louis Woman," a play written by the late Countee Cullen and Arna Bontemps, which

would have starred Lena Horne, MGM's glamorous Negro star, realizing that it would probably be made into a movie play.

Chief opposition to the play revolved around the conviction that it was an insult to Negro womanhood in that it depicted the principal character of Della (a role set aside for Miss Horne) as a loose woman of the sporting variety; and that the plot depended on the familiar stereotyping of Negroes for its success.

Miss Horne, as a result, finally turned down the role. However, the play was produced, with Ruby Hill used in the role originally intended for Miss Horne.

Another nation-wide protest, led by IFRG, was against Walt Disney's filming of "Uncle Remus," a feature-length adaptation of Joel Chandler Harris's familiar southern Negro folk tales. The movie, which was to be a combination of real life characters and animated cartoon figures, was made, however, and is slated for release in 1947.

Culmination of the NAACP's entry into the entertainment picture was the decision of that organization to set up a Hollywood bureau which would advise producers and analyze scripts dealing with Negro characterizations. Announcement of such a move by Walter White, executive secretary of the NAACP, during a visit to Hollywood in early 1946 resulted in spirited condemnation by many Negro film players.

This latter action resulted in the establishment of the Institute of Progressive Artists of America, composed of Negro feature players and extras, the purpose of which is "to protect and safeguard the interests and employment possibilities of Negro film artists."

The second group, the IFRG, was formed in 1944, and its prospectus explains that it is "a fact-finding organization dedicated to a program of audience education and designed to protect

the rights and interests of minorities as represented through the media of motion pictures, radio, television, and other fields of entertainment."

Among the leading lights in this guild are Lena Horne, John Garfield (white), Henry Blakfort, John Howard Lawson, Jean Brooks, Joseph Calleia (white), Superior Judge Stanley Mosk, Nat (King) Cole, Paul Robeson, Al Jarvis (white), Rudy Vallee (white), Rex Ingram, and others.

During the 1944-1945 period, there was a decided drop in the employment of Negro actors and actresses. One of the causes was the historic 33-week long film tie-up, involving a bitter dispute between unions over the election of bargaining agents in the industry. The strike became so complete that only a small trickle of pictures was able to be produced during the eight-month period.

However, an even greater cause of this lag in Negro employment was the practice indulged in by most of the major studios of "writing out" Negro characterizations in story scripts, for fear of giving offense. This practice led some Negro actors to condemn the "reformers."

Actors and Roles

With the exception of a few roles noted below, generally speaking, the roles given Negroes during the period were all of the household servant-bellhop-janitor-porter variety. In the main, however, these roles were handled intelligently by the performers and, except for the stereotype angle, were not offensive in any sense.

The general run of servant roles, however, were an improvement over previous years with the exception of the period of 1942-1943 which saw the widest range of Negro roles that deviated from the usual stereotyped ones.

Because of their box-office popularity and featured casting, a list of leading Negro artists includes such names as Lena Horne, Eddie (Rochester) Anderson, Rex Ingram, Clarence

Muse, Hazel Scott, Hattie McDaniel, Ben Carter, Mantan Moreland, Leigh Whipper, Louise Beavers, Willie Best, Nicodemus Stewart, and Ernest Whitman.

Lena Horne's best opportunities came in Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer's "Broadway Melody" and "Ziegfeld Follies." In the latter picture, Miss Horne's sequence scene is laid in a cheap water-front night spot, where the character she portrays supposedly gets her start as an entertainer.

Supporting Negro players in the sequence are Leroy Edwards, Ed Allen, Noble Blake, Len Benjamin, George Chester, Roland Jones, Robert Lewis, Daniel Meyers, Art Murray, Herbert Skinner, Jimmy Payne, Curtis Hamilton, Charles Hawkins, Milton Shockley, Jack Winslow, Willa Pearl Curtis, Johnny Board, Juliette Ball, Doris Ake, Myrtle Anderson, Fannie Buford, Helen Cozier, Vivian Dandridge, Palmero Jackson, Patsy Hunter, Maggie Hathaway, and Cleo Herndon.

Rochester was perhaps the busiest of all the "name" Negro artists. He played the part of butler in the household of Dennis O'Keefe, the leading character in Edward Small's "Brewster's Millions"; but the role was far removed from the regular type of butler part in that Rochester really was an integral part of the story and one of the leading characters throughout.

In Columbia's "I Love a Band-leader," Rochester was co-starred with Phil Harris, white, in a role on equal terms. Another film on the credit side in which he acted was "The Sailor Takes a Wife" (MGM).

Rex Ingram's only big shot came in Columbia's "A Thousand and One Nights," in which he played the part of the giant in the Arabian Nights fable.

Clarence Muse had a good role in Warner Brothers' "God Is My Co-Pilot," that of a family servant whose kindly influence on the youngster of the household was one of the high

lights of the picture. Muse also had a bit part, a janitor's role, in "Scarlet Street," with Edward G. Robinson.

Hattie McDaniel had featured roles: a housekeeper-governess in Selznick's "Since You Went Away" and Warner Brothers' "Janie." She also was featured in the widely criticized "Three's a Family," in which she played the part of a gin-loving maid. Her intelligent handling of roles in other films, however, somewhat offset the bad effects of the latter portrayal.

In addition to the system of "writing out" Negro parts in films, another technique was adopted by several studios in an effort to duck the Negro issue. In Warner Brothers' "Rhapsody in Blue," a picture based on George Gershwin's life, an entire sequence was done by white dancers with blacked-up faces. The same technique was applied in "Saratoga Trunk," also produced by Warner Brothers.

In this film, Flora Robson (white), using burnt cork, played the important role of Anelique, a French Negro servant, one of the most dominant parts in the entire picture. This latter action drew widespread criticism from Negroes.

NOTE: See key to abbreviations at end of section.

The Brighter Side

In the plus column was the policy of integrating Negroes in crowd scenes which was adopted by some producers. Outstanding in this respect was MGM's production, "The Clock," starring Robert Walker and Judy Garland. Negroes were seen throughout in street scenes, railroad station scenes, and other crowd settings. Several important bits fell to these players, especially a romantic scene between Bobby Johnson and Joan Douglas in a tender good-bye "shot" at a railroad station.

Among the Negro players in this picture were Agnes Lloyd, Avanelle Harris, Byron Ellis, Suzette Johnson, Napoleon Whiting, Neva Peoples, Louise Robinson, William Johnson,

Richard Coleman, Cornelius Wicks, John Erby, Doris Akes, Lucy Battle, Irene Allen, Ivan Browning, and Jay Loft-Lynn.

Jerry Scott, a fifteen-year-old singer from Chicago, made his screen debut in MGM's technicolor musical, "Thrill of a Romance." In this film, young Scott played the part of a bellhop at an exclusive resort and sang a featured song in one of the best settings ever afforded a Negro player.

Mantan Moreland and Ben Carter were given an opportunity to do some real acting in Universal's "Bowery to Broadway," the comedians being part and parcel of the story throughout, performing with dignity and ability.

Twentieth Century Fox distributed the March of Time feature, "Americans All," which drew favorable comment for its treatment of Negroes.

One of the most dignified roles offered a Negro artist during the year was that given to Hazel Scott in Warner Brothers' "Rhapsody in Blue," in which she portrayed the part of a Parisian night club artist of the highest order, and spoke in French.

Negroes were used on an integrated basis in Warner's "Hollywood Canteen." With the Golden Gate Quartet holding one of the picture's feature spots, other Negro performers acted the roles of junior hostesses, WACs, and servicemen. The cast included Suzette Johnson, Monica Carter, Daisy Bufford, Lena Torrance, Andrew Jackson, Ray Martin, Walter Dennis, James Burch, Curry Lee Calmes, Bobby Johnson, Rudolph Hunter, and Ed Lee.

A Warner Brothers' short, "It Happened in Springfield," based on the Springfield (Mass.) plan of teaching interracial tolerance through the school systems, was condemned generally by various Negro organizations because it evaded the real issues such as anti-Semitism and discrimination against Negroes.

Two service films, "The Negro Soldier" and "The Negro Sailor," were made. Carlton Moss, a Negro writer,

wrote the script for the former, and acted the role of narrator. The sponsors had anticipated that the film would show only in all-Negro houses and army camps; but more than three hundred theaters in New York alone showed the picture.

These included about a dozen first-run houses, one hundred theaters in the Brandt circuit, the thirty-five theaters in the Century chain and fifteen in the Rugoff and Becker system. The picture had more than two hundred and fifty bookings in Detroit. Most amazing of all were thousands of requests from the Deep South, asking for the picture for white theaters.

The film, directed by Col. Frank Capra (white), showed the Negro servicemen's contributions to every war in which this country has ever engaged and told the story well and interestingly.

The other film, "The Negro Sailor," directed by Henry Levin (white) for the Navy Department, was made in the summer of 1945 but has never been released. Joel Fluellyn and Leigh Whipper have the leading roles.

Perhaps the most promising young Negro actress to make her appearance during the 1944-1945 period was Louise Franklin. She ran the gamut between the extremes of a seductive dancer in MGM's "Ziegfeld Follies" to a horrible screaming death as Caba, a half-caste native beauty, in Republic's "Ghost of the Vampire."

She was one of the most consistently employed of all artists. Her other pictures included Columbia's "Carolina Blues," Warner's "Hollywood Canteen," Universal's "Choo Choo Train," starring Count Basie, Olsen and Johnson's "Crazy House," Republic's "Atlantic City," "Strange Illusion," and "Crime Incorporated," and as Rochester's screen sweetheart in Ed Small's "Brewster's Millions," and Columbia's "I Love a Bandleader."

Comeback

Nina Mae McKinney, one of the

original Negro glamour girls in movies and star of King Vidor's "Hallelujah" in the early thirties, returned to Hollywood after having been away from the screen for several years. She had small parts in several pictures, including Columbia's "Without Love," starring Irene Dunne and Charles Boyer; Joan Harrison's "Dark Waters," which also featured Rex Ingram; and Republic's "Night Train to Memphis."

Foreign Films

Negroes were interested in the treatment of their actors in foreign-made films. Portia White, Canadian contralto, was chosen by the National Film Board of Canada to appear in the Canadian government-sponsored film, "This is Canada."

In England, the famous Robert Adams, codirector of the London Negro Repertory Theater, is recognized as the leading Negro movie actor. His biggest role to date is in the Technicolor picture, "Men of Two Worlds," in which he is costarred with two of Britain's biggest white stars, Eric Portman and Phyllis Calvert.

Persons in the English film industry who were outstanding in the promotion of interracial harmony during the period were Film Director Thorold Dickinson (white), who was responsible for the story and sympathetic treatment of "Men of Two Worlds"; Robert Adams, for his outstanding work in the same film and also in "Caesar and Cleopatra"; Orlando Martins, for his performances in "The Man from Morocco" and "Men of Two Worlds."

Roundup

Featured in Twentieth Century's "Colonel Effingham's Raid," a picture which at times used as many as six hundred Negro extras, was Nicodemus Stewart.

Included in Universal's "Girl on a Train," starring Deanna Durbin, were

Milton Shockley, Chester Jones, Henry Hastings, Napoleon Whiting, Ivan Browning, Ed Allan, William Johnson, James Adamson, Andrew Jackson, Bobbie Johnson, and Casey Thompson.

Eddie Green, for years a featured favorite in the radio show, "Duffy's Tavern," played the same role in Paramount's film version of the production.

Negro players seen in Universal's "Salome, Where She Danced," directed by Charles Lamont, were Jack Winslow, Harold Garrison, Martin Turner, Ivan Browning, and Bobbie Johnson.

Mantan Moreland was featured in several Charlie Chan films, produced by Monogram and starring Sidney Toler. Moreland teamed up with another well-known actor, Ben Carter, to form one of the most popular comedy teams of the last decade.

The late Etta McDaniel was seen in Universal's "Men in Her Diary." Leigh Whipper appeared in MGM's "The Hidden Eye." In the Academy Award-winning film, "The Lost Weekend," produced by Paramount, Negro artists seen in flash bits, as patients in a hospital ward with white patients, were the late Jesse Brooks, Ernest Whitman, Edward Patrick, and Roland Jones.

"Good Intentions," starring Eddie Bracken and Veronica Lake, used Milton Shockley.

Joe Louis and Henry Armstrong had small parts in Monogram's "Joe Palooka, Champion," based on the famous comic strip of the same name.

One of the pictures using many Negro players during the year was "Congo Pongo," a Sig Nuefeld production.

Walt Disney's "Uncle Remus" has Jimmy Baskette in the title role; Hatie McDaniel as Tempie and nine-year-old Glenn Leedy as Toby. Others are Anita Brown, Elizabeth Spratley (stand-in for Miss McDaniel), Myrtle Anderson, Helen Crozier, Phil Jones, and Walter Knox.

Chester Jones and Milton Shockley appeared in Paramount's "Our Hearts Were Growing Up," starring Brian Donlevy.

Butterfly McQueen had a featured role as a maid in Warner's "Mildred Pierce," starring Joan Crawford; Lilian Taylor was her stand-in.

Led by Hattie McDaniel, a number of Negroes were used in Warner's "Janie Gets Married." These included Daisy Bufford, Theo Washington, Casie Thompson, and Napoleon Whiting.

Cornelius Wicks was an atmosphere player in "Radio Stars on Parade" (RKO). Ivan Browning and John Williams were used in "The Blue Dahlia" (Para.). Bobbie Johnson appeared in "The Enchanted Voyage" (20th). Napoleon Whiting and Henry Thomas had bit parts in "Hail the Chief" (Col.).

Butterfly McQueen was featured in Republic's "Flame of the Barbary Coast." Including Clarence Muse, a large number of Negro players filled the roles of natives, tribal chiefs and villagers, in "Jungle Captive" (Univ.).

Frankie (Sugar Chile) Robinson, sensational six-year-old pianist, made his movie bow in "No Leave, No Love" (MGM). "Caribbean Mystery" (20th) offered small parts to Ivan Browning, Napoleon Whiting, John Erby, and Bobbie Johnson. Martin Turner, one of the busiest extras in the movies, worked as stand-in for Sam McDaniel in "The Naughty Nineties."

Louis Jordan and his band made a hit with their featured shorts, "Caldonia" and "Beware, Brother," produced at Filmcraft Studios, New York. The musical group also appeared in "Follow the Boys" (Univ.), with Nico-demus Stewart; "Miss Bobby Socks" (Col.), and "Swing Parade of '46" (Mono.).

Caleb Peterson got small parts in RKO's "Till the Clouds Roll By," in which he sang "Ole Man River" and "Till the End of Time," the former based on the life of the late

Jerome Kern. Lena Horne was featured in the latter.

Martin Turner and Henry Hastings played the roles of African natives converted to the Catholic faith in Republic's "Ghost of the Vampire." An important role was played in the same film by Martin Wilkins. Others appearing were Irving Smith, James Allen, Jesse Graves, Harry Levette, and Zack Williams.

Louise Beavers, well-known actress, appeared in "Delightfully Dangerous," a Charles Rogers' production. Sibye Lewis was seen in "The Very Thought of You" (WB), "Going My Way" (Para.), and appeared opposite Mantan Moreland in Monogram's "Revenge of the Zombies."

Ceele Burke and his rhumba band were featured in "Romance of the Rhumba," a Warner Brothers' short. The King Cole Trio and the Ben Carter Ensemble were included in "Stars on Parade" (Col.).

In "Atlantic City" (Rep.) were Louis Armstrong and his band, Dorothy Dandridge, Jesse Graves, and others. Ben Carter appeared in the Bing Crosby Productions' "The Great John L." and in "The Harvey Girls." Ella Mae Brown appeared in 20th Century's "Sunday Dinner for a Soldier." Jack Winslow was seen in "Stars Over Manhattan."

Universal's "The Mystery of the River Boat" featured Mantan Moreland, with Robert Jackson as his double. Others were Ed Patrick, Doc McGill, Thomas Williams, and Thomas Sherman.

Jesse Graves appeared in Columbia's "Tomorrow You Die." RKO used Richard Coleman in "Betrayal from the East." In RKO's "Experiment Perilous" were Robert Lewis, Jack Winslow, Oscar Vena, Richard Coleman, Harold Garrison, Irving Smith, and John Williams.

In "Nevada" (RKO), William Pearl Curtis appeared. Warner Brothers' "Roughly Speaking" used Cornelius Wicks, Marie Reid, Ivan Browning,

Lucius Brooks, John Thomas, Matilda Caldwell, George Edwards, Rudolph Hunter, Robert Johnson, Cornelius Ballard, Ed Allen, Curtis Hamilton, Martin Turner, Ed Lewis, and Helen Stasher.

June Richmond and Harold Nicholas had good parts in Columbia's "Carolina Blues."

Josh White, folk song singer and guitarist, and Coleman Hawkins were featured in Universal's "The Crimson Canary," written by the noted liberal screen scenarist, Henry Blankfort.

Memphis Censors

Memphis, Tenn., gained national publicity when its movie and stage censors cut out scenes from various pictures which portrayed Negroes in roles equal socially to those of white players. Scenes showing Louis Arm-

strong's band and Dorothy Dandridge were cut from the picture, "Ziegfeld Follies"; scenes showing Cab Calloway's orchestra were cut out of "Sensations of 1945."

Scenes showing Eddie (Rochester) Anderson in "Brewster's Millions" were deleted because Rochester was considered too familiar with the white actors in the play. Other pictures showing Negroes in more favorable parts suffered the same fate in Memphis.

Key to Abbreviations

MGM	Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer
Para.	Paramount
Col.	Columbia
Univ.	Universal
20th	20th Century Fox
Mono.	Monogram
WB	Warner Brothers
Rep.	Republic

FARMS AND FARM OPERATORS

Source: Bureau of the Census

Negro farm operators account for approximately 19 out of 20 nonwhite farm operators in the United States. Since such a large proportion of the nonwhite operators are Negroes, the comparisons given below for nonwhite operators apply, in general, to Negro farm operators.

Nonwhite farm operators comprised 11.8 percent of the total of all farm operators in 1940. The number of nonwhite farm operators recorded at this census was the smallest ever recorded since census data were first secured by color of the farm operator in 1900.

The 1910 census showed an increase in the number of nonwhite operators of nearly 20 percent over the number recorded in 1900. In the decade which followed there was a slight increase, but each census since 1920 has shown a decline.

The northern and western states, however, continued to show an increase in number of nonwhite operators through 1935, but a decline was recorded in the 1940 census. Most of the decline in number of nonwhite operators for the country, as a whole, since 1920 was in the decade 1930 to 1940.

White operators increased 0.1 percent during that decade. The decline in the number of nonwhite operators was largely in the South and resulted almost entirely from the loss of Negro tenants, particularly croppers.

Negro Operators

In 1930 there were 882,850 Negro farm operators in the United States, but in 1940 there were only 681,790, an absolute decrease of 201,060 and a relative decrease of 22.8 percent in the ten-year period.

Practically all (98.8 percent) of this

decrease occurred in the South, which lost 198,722 Negro farm operators in the intercensal decade. The South, nevertheless, had the great majority of all Negro farmers at both censuses, 672,214 in 1940 and 870,936 in 1930. The 1940 census showed that 94.8 percent of all nonwhite farm operators were Negroes.

Most of the Negro operators are in the southern states, in which are about one fourth of all farm operators. In Mississippi more than one half of the farm operators are Negroes. In the northern and western states only about 1.3 percent of all farm operators are Negroes.

In most areas the farms of nonwhite operators averaged much smaller in size than did the farms of white operators. The average values per farm of land and buildings, of buildings only, and of implements and machinery, were also lower than for farms of white operators. Relatively few nonwhite operators were owners.

The proportion of tenancy was 71.9 percent for nonwhite as compared with 34.3 percent for white operators.

Other Nonwhite Groups

The number of Indian farm operators increased from 26,817 in 1930 to 29,742 in 1940; Japanese farmers increased from 5840 in 1930 to 6978 in 1940; and Chinese farmers decreased from 476 in 1930 to 327 in 1940. Oriental farm operators were concentrated in the West Coast states, particularly in California.

FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION REHABILITATION LOANS TO NEGROES

For the past eight years the United States Department of Agriculture has

FARM OPERATORS BY TENURE—BY REGIONS AND STATES: 1940

Division and State	Total White	Total	Negro Operators			Tenants
			Full Owners	Part Owners	Man- agers	
United States	5,377,728	681,790	142,395	31,615	413	507,367
NEW ENGLAND:						
Maine	38,962	13	11	2
New Hampshire	16,552	2	2
Vermont	23,570	12	12
Massachusetts	31,416	451	380	9	6	56
Rhode Island	3,009	5	4	1
Connecticut	21,118	40	32	3	1	4
MIDDLE ATLANTIC:						
New York	152,671	152	99	10	4	39
New Jersey	25,387	438	291	22	5	120
Pennsylvania	168,705	319	206	11	6	96
EAST NORTH CENTRAL:						
Ohio	232,684	1,092	653	108	7	324
Indiana	184,169	373	212	49	..	112
Illinois	212,654	783	361	93	1	328
Michigan	186,828	634	443	47	4	140
Wisconsin	186,431	44	38	6
WEST NORTH CENTRAL:						
Minnesota	197,057	29	19	4	..	6
Iowa	213,191	88	54	4	..	30
Missouri	252,410	3,686	959	190	13	2,524
North Dakota	73,369	4	1	3
South Dakota	70,713	27	14	3	..	10
Nebraska	120,779	25	11	4	..	10
Kansas	155,582	681	284	124	4	269
SOUTH ATLANTIC:						
Delaware	8,369	625	301	44	8	272
Maryland	38,059	4,049	2,057	212	22	1,758
District of Columbia..	61	3	1	..	1	1
Virginia	139,795	35,062	18,920	3,318	36	12,788
West Virginia	98,611	671	396	31	5	239
North Carolina	218,008	57,428	13,021	4,214	28	40,165
South Carolina	76,251	61,204	13,114	3,939	28	44,123
Georgia	156,901	59,127	8,603	1,414	36	49,074
Florida	52,490	9,731	4,485	1,006	39	4,201
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL:						
Kentucky	247,347	5,546	2,701	462	6	2,377
Tennessee	219,642	27,972	5,392	1,492	10	21,078
Alabama	158,382	73,338	11,771	3,915	21	57,631
Mississippi	131,552	159,256	20,456	2,797	44	135,959
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL:						
Arkansas	159,649	57,011	8,940	1,610	18	46,443
Louisiana	90,423	59,556	9,512	1,659	17	48,368
Oklahoma	166,115	8,987	2,110	812	9	6,056
Texas	365,249	52,648	16,088	3,958	28	32,574
MOUNTAIN:						
Montana	40,747	14	6	3	..	5
Idaho	43,097	14	11	1	..	2
Wyoming	14,715	12	9	3
Colorado	51,034	56	33	6	..	17
New Mexico	28,541	58	36	6	..	16

FARM OPERATORS BY TENURE—BY REGIONS AND STATES: 1940 (Cont.)

Division and State	Total White	Total	Negro Operators			Tenants
			Full Owners	Part Owners	Man- agers	
Arizona	10,239	90	62	5	2	21
Utah	24,734	8	8
Nevada	3,147	4	4
PACIFIC:						
Washington	80,179	74	62	3	..	9
Oregon	61,206	21	18	1	..	2
California	125,928	327	192	26	4	105

helped hundreds of thousands of low-income farmers (Negro and white) to improve their resources and productive ability.

The Farm Security Administration always has stressed diversified and more abundant food and fiber production among its borrowers. In 1943 this agency of the Department of Agriculture was assisting the half million farm families active in the standard rehabilitation program to step up their production of Food for Freedom. Of this number more than 56,000 were Negroes.

Rehabilitation loans are made to low-income farmers unable to obtain credit from banks or other lending institutions. They enable borrowers to acquire livestock, machinery, equipment, seed, fertilizer, and other supplies they need to become better producers. The loans are made usually for a five-year period, at five percent interest.

County farm and home management supervisors visit FSA borrowers regularly and help them improve their skills at farming and homemaking. In other words, an educational program,

with the farm and the home as the "classrooms," goes along with the loans.

**STATUS OF THE ACTIVE STANDARD
RURAL REHABILITATION NEGRO
FAMILY AT END OF 1944 CROP
YEAR IN THE FOURTEEN
SOUTHERN STATES**

Item	Fourteen Southern States
Active standard Negro families..No.	37,763
Number of families in sample..No.	1,746
Size of farm 1944.....Acres	79
Land in crops 1944.....Acres	36
Total owned	\$ 1,542
Total owed	\$ 569
Net worth	\$ 973
Working capital end of 1944.....	\$ 851
Total amount borrowed from FSA..	\$ 1,254
Total RR debt end of 1944.....	\$ 488
Delinquency status:	
Number borrowers delinquent..No.	19,714
Percent borrowers delinquent...%	52
Amount delinquent for those delinquent	\$ 243
Gross family income.....	\$ 1,221
Gross farm income.....	\$ 1,006
Total nonfarm income.....	\$ 215
Farm operating expenses.....	\$ 316
Net family income.....	\$ 905
Net farm income.....	\$ 690
Value home-used food.....	\$ 337

FARMS OPERATED BY NEGROES—NUMBER, ACREAGE, AND SPECIFIED VALUES, BY TENURE, BY DIVISIONS: 1940

'DIVISION OR STATE AND TENURE	Number of Farms	All Land in Farms (acres)	Cropland Harvested, 1939 (acres)	Crop Failure, 1939 (acres)	Cropland, Idle or Fallow, 1939 (acres)		Plowable Pasture, 1939 (acres)	Wood- land, 1939 (acres)	Value of Land and Buildings (dollars)		Value of Implements and Machinery (dollars)
					1939	1939			Total	Buildings	
UNITED STATES (total).....	681,790	30,785,095	14,803,104	386,063	1,635,386	2,642,058	8,357,765	836,067,623	224,388,138	40,193,537	12,272,061
Full owners	142,395	8,215,026	2,709,038	88,113	534,104	972,147	2,975,686	200,844,601	67,264,041	12,272,061	3,399,147
Part owners	31,615	2,099,257	863,521	33,369	119,288	228,720	591,866	50,484,125	13,865,359	3,399,147	539,663
Managers	413	153,601	48,904	818	8,050	21,118	52,394	8,208,132	1,998,971	539,663	23,982,666
Tenants	507,367	20,317,211	11,181,641	263,763	973,944	1,420,073	4,737,819	576,530,765	141,259,767	23,982,666	
GEOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS											
NEW ENGLAND (total).....	523	9,422	2,256	66	436	927	3,511	1,565,327	855,463	73,425	60,193
Full owners	441	8,303	1,886	63	403	786	3,198	1,313,802	733,064	60,193	3,050
Part owners	12	271	119	9	13	68	51,805	33,200	3,050	3,285
Managers	7	228	104	3	2	59	74,400	19,800	3,285	6,897
Tenants	63	620	147	22	128	186	125,320	69,399	6,897	
MIDDLE ATLANTIC (total).....	909	45,562	15,887	741	5,436	5,841	9,240	3,308,828	1,755,375	275,577	146,119
Full owners	596	24,476	8,137	494	2,807	3,093	5,378	1,716,279	1,027,795	146,119	20,995
Part owners	43	3,057	1,254	54	288	457	424	173,030	96,000	20,995	24,575
Managers	15	2,174	915	4	87	213	652	387,600	152,700	24,575	83,888
Tenants	255	15,855	5,581	189	2,254	2,078	2,786	1,031,919	478,880	83,888	
EAST NORTH CENTRAL (total)...	2,926	168,043	59,013	2,507	16,254	29,161	25,049	8,073,718	3,034,882	514,102	239,925
Full owners	1,707	73,631	22,138	808	7,990	13,562	11,425	3,636,810	1,733,645	239,925	77,224
Part owners	297	25,776	11,906	371	1,984	4,324	3,006	1,163,130	331,300	77,224	20,247
Managers	12	2,536	1,219	104	209	236	112	261,040	78,050	20,247	176,706
Tenants	910	66,100	23,750	1,224	6,071	11,039	10,506	3,012,738	891,887	176,706	

FARMS AND FARM OPERATORS

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WEST NORTH CENTRAL (total)...	4,540	295,359	116,063	19,591	23,434	42,600	31,222	9,882,720	2,252,646	591,458
Full owners	1,342	80,694	24,607	3,637	5,960	14,387	13,621	2,993,613	855,029	179,689
Part owners	329	58,506	15,575	6,170	4,553	8,504	4,870	1,105,052	245,255	85,885
Managers	17	4,242	1,443	18	243	1,827	203	354,900	80,250	28,725
Tenants	2,852	151,917	74,438	9,766	12,678	17,882	12,528	5,429,155	1,072,112	297,159
SOUTH ATLANTIC (total).....	227,900	12,449,608	5,479,742	54,664	767,820	667,402	4,593,360	331,516,093	101,999,161	14,483,192
Full owners	60,898	3,096,468	1,020,341	17,361	241,778	217,591	1,359,264	84,241,915	32,043,885	4,830,675
Part owners	14,178	758,893	340,588	4,664	44,554	36,868	279,678	20,406,931	6,888,833	1,283,631
Managers	203	63,791	20,153	190	4,310	6,961	25,615	3,707,221	1,124,586	190,167
Tenants	152,621	8,530,456	4,098,660	32,449	477,178	405,982	2,928,803	223,160,026	61,041,857	8,176,719
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL (total)...	266,112	10,243,207	5,260,649	244,752	399,176	1,099,933	2,114,515	263,744,273	67,198,698	12,506,918
Full owners	40,320	2,744,506	852,147	45,606	129,345	423,965	921,117	53,868,134	15,878,147	3,553,213
Part owners	8,666	589,191	228,967	15,101	26,705	87,860	154,298	12,324,488	3,278,496	901,044
Managers	81	37,003	12,076	402	1,305	5,532	12,993	1,518,394	252,100	118,797
Tenants	217,045	6,872,507	4,167,459	183,643	241,821	582,576	1,026,107	196,033,257	47,789,955	7,933,864
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL (total)...	178,202	7,500,226	3,856,611	62,124	417,528	783,194	1,578,606	215,202,978	46,641,708	11,558,251
Full owners	36,650	2,150,626	774,243	19,687	143,347	292,494	659,970	51,639,020	13,651,866	3,162,044
Part owners	8,039	646,078	262,339	6,705	40,096	88,224	149,310	14,860,002	2,939,485	996,308
Managers	72	39,613	12,794	86	1,894	6,349	12,760	1,824,977	281,535	151,242
Tenants	133,441	4,663,909	2,807,235	35,646	232,191	396,127	756,566	146,878,979	29,768,822	7,248,657
MOUNTAIN (total)	256	45,926	5,364	1,276	3,280	9,339	1,404	893,355	191,640	68,208
Full owners	169	24,830	2,184	392	1,570	4,577	1,134	458,552	125,255	37,711
Part owners	21	8,216	1,652	280	736	2,047	148,392	14,570	12,370
Managers	2	3,936	150	50,600	1,150	800
Tenants	64	8,944	1,378	604	974	2,715	270	235,811	50,665	17,327
PACIFIC (total)	422	27,742	7,519	342	2,022	3,661	858	1,880,331	458,565	122,406
Full owners	272	11,492	3,355	65	904	1,692	579	976,476	315,355	62,492
Part owners	30	9,269	1,121	24	363	423	212	251,295	38,220	18,640
Managers	4	78	50	11	29,000	8,800	1,825
Tenants	116	6,903	2,993	242	755	1,546	67	623,560	96,190	39,449

MISCELLANEOUS LISTS AND DIRECTORIES

CONTEMPORARY NEGRO ARTISTS

Source: *The Negro Artist Comes of Age*, published by the Albany Institute of History and Art: 1945

Artis, William E., sculptor and ceramist, New York. Born in New York, 1914. Studied at the Art Students League, New York City, the New York State College of Ceramics (grad.), and the Greenwich House Ceramic Center. Exhibits: Harmon Foundation, 1933 (John Hope Prize in Sculpture), 1935; Grace Horne Galleries, Boston, 1942; Atlanta University, 1944; U.S.O. Exhibit, New York, 1944; also in Philadelphia, Chicago, Washington, and Smith College. Member of the New York Society of Arts and Crafts.

Bannarn, Henry W., painter and sculptor, Minneapolis, Minn. Born in Wetunka, Okla., 1910. Studied at the Minneapolis School of Art, Beaux Arts, and the Art Students League, New York City. Exhibits: Minnesota State Fair, 1928 (2nd Prize); Carnegie Institute, 1929; Harmon Foundation, 1933; Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, 1936; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Minnesota State Artists Annual, 1940 (1st Prize in Sculpture); one-man shows held at the Hanley Gallery, St. Paul, Minn., 1940.

Barthé, Richmond, sculptor, New York. Born in Bay St. Louis, Miss., 1901. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago (grad.), under Charles Schroeder and Albin Polasek; won the Eames McVeagh Prize in 1928; the Art Students League; privately under Charles Schroeder; started painting in 1924 and became sculptor

in 1928; Rosenwald Fellow in 1930 and 1931; Guggenheim Fellow in 1940 and 1941; exhibited widely since 1928, including eight one-man shows; represented in collection at the University of Wisconsin Museum, Whitney Museum, Hackley Museum, Oberlin College, the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, the Virginia Museum of Fine Arts, the Metropolitan Museum, and in collections abroad; works include bas-relief on themes from "Green Pastures" for the Harlem River House, United States Treasury Project, New York City, 1937-1938; the Brisbane Memorial, 5th Ave., New York City; an eighty-foot frieze for the Kingsboro Housing Project, Brooklyn, N.Y.; eagle for the doorway, Social Security Building, Washington, D.C. Work in progress includes a memorial figure of Monsignor White to be placed in Newark.

Bearden, Romare, painter, New York. Born in Charlotte, N.C., in 1912. Studied at the American Artists School and the Art Students League, New York City. Exhibits: Harlem Art Center, 1937 and 1939; the American Artists Gallery, 1938; the McMillen Gallery, 1941; the Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1941; the Institute of Modern Art, Boston, 1943; Smith College, 1943; the Minneapolis Art Gallery; the Columbus, O., Museum of Art; one-man show at the G Place Gallery, Washington, D.C., 1944; one-man show at the Kootz Gallery, New York City, 1945.

Bishop, Eloise, sculptor, New

York. Born, Pittsburgh, Pa., 1921. Studied under Simon Molselsio, and at Columbia University. Now teaches painting and sculpture at the King-Smith School, Washington, D.C. Works in clay, wood, limestone, and marble. Exhibits: the Independent Artists Show, New York City; Atlanta University; Columbia University; the King-Smith School, Washington, D.C.

Burke, Selma Hortense, sculptor, New York City. Born, Mooresville, N.C. Studied at Columbia University (grad.); studied sculpture under Maillo in Paris and Povolney in Vienna. Rosenwald Fellow in 1939. Exhibited widely in the United States and Europe. One-man show at the Carlen Galleries, Philadelphia, 1945, and at the Julian Levy Galleries, New York City, 1945.

Carter, William, painter, Chicago. Born, St. Louis, Mo., 1909. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago, and the University of Illinois. Exhibits: the Chicago Art League, 1934; the Art Institute of Chicago, 1937; Hull House, 1938; the Illinois Federal Art Project, 1937-1939; the American Negro Exposition, 1940 (1st Prize in Water Colors); Atlanta University, 1942 (1st Prize in Oils). Winner of mural contest, 1944, "The Negro in Professional Life," sponsored by the South Side Community Art Center of Chicago for the Professional Arts Building.

Catlett, Elizabeth (Mrs. Charles White), sculptor and painter, New York City. Born, Washington, D.C., 1915. Received M.A. in Fine Arts from the University of Iowa, and studied with Ossip Zadkine and Grant Wood. Exhibits: the University of Iowa, 1939; the Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1940; the American Negro Exposition, 1940 (1st Prize in Sculpture); Atlanta University, 1942-1943; Brown University, 1943; Smith College Museum of Art, 1943; Institute of Modern Art, Boston, 1943; University of Chicago, 1944.

Clark, Claude, painter, Philadelphia. Young artist about thirty.

Studied at the Philadelphia Museum School and the Barnes Foundation, Philadelphia. Exhibits: the Barnes Foundation and the Corcoran Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C., 1942. One-man show at the Artists Gallery, Philadelphia.

Cortor, Eldzier, painter, Chicago. Born, Chicago, Ill., 1915. Studied at the Englewood Evening High School and the Art Institute of Chicago. Exhibits: the South Parkway Y.M.C.A., Chicago, 1936; the Chicago Artists Gallery, 1938; the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940 (2nd Prize in Oils).

Crichlow, Ernest, painter, New York. Born, New York City, 1914. Studied at New York University and the Art Students League, New York City. Exhibits: the Harlem Community Center, 1938-1939; the A.C.A. Gallery, New York City; the Federal Art Gallery, New York City; Boston Museum of Fine Arts; Newark Museum; Downtown Gallery; McMillen Gallery; Roko Gallery; International Print Society, New York City; the New York World's Fair; the Smith College Museum of Art.

Delaney, Joseph, painter, New York City. Born, Knoxville, Tenn., 1904. Studied at the Landon School of Art, Washington, D.C., and the Art Students League in New York City under Thomas H. Benton. Exhibits: Washington Square Shows, New York City, 1937-1940; one-man exhibit at the Greenwich House, New York City, 1944.

Douglas, Aaron, painter, New York City. Born, Topeka, Kan., 1899. Studied at the University of Kansas (A.B. in Fine Arts, 1923); under Winold Reiss, New York City; Barnes Foundation Fellow, 1928-1929; Rosenwald grant for study in Paris, 1931, at L'Académie Scandinave; under Despiau, Waroquier, and Frieze; Rosenwald Fellow (1938), touring the South and Haiti. Exhibits: the Harmon Foundation, 1928 and 1935; Harmon College Art, 1934-1935; Texas

Centennial, 1936; Howard University, 1937; Baltimore Museum, 1939. One-man shows at the Caz-Delbos Gallery, New York, 1933; the A.C.A. Gallery, New York, 1938. Murals at Fisk University Library, Bennett College, and the 135th Street Branch of the New York Public Library.

Flemister, Fred C., painter, Atlanta, Ga. Born, Atlanta, Ga., 1916. Studied under Hale Woodruff; scholarship student at the John Herron Art Institute, Indianapolis, 1940-1941. Exhibits: Atlanta University, 1936, 1937, and 1942 (\$100 Prize, Painting); High Museum, Atlanta, Ga., 1939 and 1941 (3rd Prize); American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940 (1st Prize in Oils).

Goreleigh, Rex, painter, Chicago. Born, Penllyn, Pa., 1902. Studied at the Art Students League, New York City; in Paris, under André L'Hôte. Exhibits: Society of Independent Artists, 1930-1932 and 1936; Anderson Galleries, New York, 1931, 1932, and 1936; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Strindberg Gallery, Finland; Y.M.C.A., Greensboro, N.C., Shaw University, Raleigh, N.C.; Renaissance Society, University of Chicago; South Side Community Art Center, Chicago.

Hayden, Palmer, painter, New York City. Born, Wide Water, Va., 1893. Studied at Boothbay Colony, Me., under Asa G. Randall; Cooper Union, New York City; in Paris and Brittany under M. Clivett LeFevre. Exhibits: the Civic Club, 1926 (William E. Harmon Gold Medal); Harmon Foundation, 1931, 1933 (Rockefeller Prize); Salon des Tuilleries, 1930; American Legion Exhibition, Paris, 1931; Harmon College Art Traveling Exhibition, 1934-1935; New Jersey State Museum, 1935; Roerich Museum, New York, 1935; Dallas Exposition, 1936; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; New Names in Art, and the Atlanta University Annual, 1940 and 1944; one-man show held at the Galerie Bernheim Jeune, Paris, 1928.

Johnson, Sargent C., sculptor, Berkeley, Cal. Born, Boston, Mass., 1888. Studied at the San Francisco Art Association (medals for sculpture, 1925, 1931, and 1935); Boston School of Fine Arts; studied under Beniamino Bufano and Ralph Stackpole. Exhibits: San Francisco Artists Annual, 1925-1931; Harmon Foundation, 1928 (Otto H. Kahn Prize); 1929 (Bronze Award); 1930, 1931 (Harmon Award); 1933 (Robert C. Ogden Prize); San Diego Fine Arts Gallery, 1930; Art Institute of Chicago, 1930; Howard University, 1937 and 1939; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940 (3rd Prize, Sculpture); Chicago Fine Arts Gallery; Artists Fund Prize in 1938 for Lithographs, black and white; works in the collections of the San Diego Fine Arts Gallery and the San Francisco Museum of Fine Arts; frieze depicting high school sports at the George Washington High School, San Francisco; colored tile murals and a carved slate façade at Aquatic Park, San Francisco; five statues of animals cast in terrazzo at the Sunnydale Housing Project, San Francisco.

Johnson, William H., painter, New York City. Born, Florence, S.C., 1901. Studied at the National Academy of Design (nine prizes including the Cannon Prize in 1924 and 1926, Hallgarten Prize in 1925); Cape Cod School of Art under Charles W. Hawthorne; Paris and Southern France; Denmark and Norway. Exhibits: the Harmon Foundation, 1929 (Gold Award), 1930, 1931, and 1933; Aarllins, Denmark, and Oslo, 1935 and 1937; Dallas Exposition, 1936; Howard University, 1937; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; one-man shows in Paris, 1927; Nice, 1928-1929; Copenhagen, 1933; Norway, 1935; Stockholm, 1937 (nineteen one-man shows in Europe); Artists Gallery, New York City, 1938; Alma Reed Galleries, New York City, 1944; Marquie Gallery, New York City, 1944.

Jones, Louis Mailou, painter, Washington, D.C. Born Boston, 1905. Studied on scholarship for four years at Boston Museum, scholarship student at the Museum of Fine Arts School, Boston (grad.); Boston Normal Art School; Harvard Summer School; Columbia University Summer School; Howard University; Designers Art School, Boston; Julien Académie, Paris. Exhibited widely in the United States and Europe since 1930. One-man shows at Howard University, 1933-1937; Robert Vose Gallery, Boston, 1939. Awards include the Foreign Fellowship, General Education Board, 1937-1938; 1st Prize in Oil, 6th Annual, National Museum of Art, 1940; Robert Woods Bliss Landscape Prize in Oil Painting, Corcoran Gallery, Washington, 1941; 2nd Purchase Award for Water Color, Atlanta University, 1942. Represented by work at Howard University Men's Dormitory, Howard University Gallery of Art; 135th St. Library, New York City; Atlanta University; High School of Practical Arts, Boston; Palais National, Haiti; Barnett-Aden Gallery, Washington, D.C.

Joseph, Ronald, painter, New York City. Born, St. Kitts, British West Indies, 1910. Studied at the Art Students League, New York City. Exhibits: Harlem Art Center, 1938-1939; the Baltimore Museum, 1939; Columbia University Art Department, 1939; the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940.

Lawrence, Jacob, painter, New York City. Born, Atlantic City, N.J., 1917. Studied under Charles Alston and Henry Bannarn at the Art Workshop; the Harlem Art Center; the American Artists School; Rosenwald Fellow, 1940, 1941, and 1942. Exhibits: the Alston-Bannarn Studios, 1935-1937; Harlem Art Center, 1936-1939; Detroit Museum, 1938; Dillard University, 1938; Fisk University, 1938; Brooklyn College, 1938; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, 1940 (2nd Prize); New York

Federal Art Project, 1938-1940; one-man exhibits at the Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1941 and 1943; the Museum of Modern Art and the Phillips Memorial Gallery, Washington. Awarded the Purchase Prize in the Artists for Victory Exhibit, 1942. Works in the collections of the Metropolitan Museum, Museum of Modern Art, Phillips Memorial Gallery, Portland Art Museum, Rhode Island Museum, University of Arizona, Worcester Museum, Whitney Museum, Howard University, Albright Art Gallery, Virginia Museum, and the Carver School, New York City.

Lewis, Norman, painter, New York. Born, New York City, 1909. Studied art privately under Augusta Savage, Raphael Soyer, Vaclav Vyat-lacil, and Augusta Streater. Exhibits: the Harlem Artists Guild, 1936-1937; the Harlem Art Center, 1937-1939; the American Artists School, New York City, 1938; the Harlem Y.M.C.A., 1938; Fisk University, 1939; the Baltimore Museum, 1939; the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940.

Loper, Edward L., painter, Wilmington, Del. Born, Wilmington, Del., 1916. Received private criticism from N. C. Wyeth, Walter Pyle, David Reyam, and Robert Carlen. Exhibits: the Whyte Gallery, Washington, 1938 (Popular Prize); the Delaware Artists Annual, 1937 (Honorable Mention); 1938 (work purchased by the Wilmington Society of Fine Arts), 1940 (Honorable Mention), 1941 (First Prize); the American Negro Exposition, 1940. Received the Yarnall Albott Prize, Philadelphia, 1944; one-man show held at the Howard High School, Wilmington, 1939.

Motley, Archibald, J., painter, New Orleans, La. Born, New Orleans, 1891. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago under Buehler, Norton, and Krehbiel; Frank J. Logan Medalist, J. N. Eisendrath Prize, 1925; Harmon Gold Award, 1928; Guggenheim Fellow, 1929. Exhibits: the Harmon

Foundation, 1929 and 1931; Guggenheim Fellows Exhibit, 1931 and 1933; American Scandinavian Exhibit, 1931; Illinois Academy of Fine Arts, 1931; Art Institute of Chicago, 1932 and 1934; Toledo Museum, 1934; Corcoran Gallery, Washington, 1934; Dallas Exposition, 1936; Howard University, 1937-1938; Baltimore Museum, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; South Side Community Art Center, Chicago, 1940; Library of Congress, 1940; College Art Traveling Exhibition, Chicago, 1942; one-man show at the New Galleries, New York City, 1928. Works in the collections of the Harmon Foundation, Howard University, the Wood River, Ill., Post Office; Evansville, Ill., State Hospital; Chicago Public Library, the Ryerson School, Chicago, and the Doolittle School, Chicago.

Neal, Frank W., painter, New York. Young artist, near thirty years of age. Received art training at the Art Institute of Chicago, and in Mexico. Dancer with the Chicago Civic Opera Ballet, and with the musical, "Carmen Jones" in New York. Exhibits: Atlanta University, 1943 (1st Prize, Water Colors) and has had one-man shows at the de Young Museum, San Francisco, 1943; the International Print Society, New York City, 1943-1944.

Perkins, Marion, sculptor, Chicago. Born, Marche, Ark., 1908. Studied, beginning in 1937, under Cy Gordon. Exhibits: the Art Institute of Chicago, Howard University, the Evanston Country Club, and Hull House, Chicago.

Pippin, Horace, painter, West Chester, Pa. Born, West Chester, 1888. Self-taught artist. Exhibits: the Chester County, Pa., Art Association, 1937. One-man shows include the Carlen Galleries, Philadelphia, 1940-1941; Bignou Galleries, New York City, 1940; the Arts Club of Chicago, 1941; the San Francisco Museum of Art, 1942; the Masters of Popular Painting Exhibit at the Museum of Modern Art,

1938; the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; the Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1941; the Carnegie Institute, 1944 (Honorable Mention). Represented at the Albright Gallery, Buffalo; the Barnes Foundation, Philadelphia; the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, the Phillips Memorial Gallery, Washington; the Whitney Museum, the Wichita Museum, Kansas; the Rhode Island Museum, the Encyclopedia Britannica Collection.

Porter, James A., painter, Washington, D.C. Born, Baltimore, Md., 1905. Studied at Howard University (A.B. in Art); the Art Students League, New York City; New York University (M.A.); Assistant Professor of Art, Howard University, since 1927. Exhibits: the Harmon Foundation, 1928-1929 (Honorable Mention), 1933 (Schomburg Portrait Prize); the American Watercolor Society, 1932; the Philadelphia Watercolor Society; the National Gallery of Art, 1933; the Corcoran Gallery, Washington, D.C.; the Museum of Modern Art; the Institute of Modern Art, Boston; Smith College Museum; South Side Community Art Center, Chicago; Baltimore Museum of Art; the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts; the Dallas Exposition, 1936; Howard University, 1937 and 1939; Harlem Art Center; the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940.

Scott, William Edouard, painter, Chicago. Born, Indianapolis, Ind., 1884. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago, and five years in Paris with Tanner, at the Julian and Colarossi Academies. Awards: Twice won Frederick Magnus Brand Prize at the Art Institute of Chicago; the Harmon Gold Medal in Fine Arts, 1927; Rosenwald Fellow, 1931; Jesse Binga Prize, 1931; James McVeagh Prize, 1931; Legion of Honor, Government of Haiti; commission to paint murals for Recorder of Deeds Building, Washington, D.C. Exhibited at the Royal Academy, London, 1912; Autumn Salon, Paris; Salon

la Touquet; Art Institute of Chicago; Cincinnati Museum; San Diego Museum; Los Angeles; Port-au-Prince (one-man show) 1931; Johannesburg, Africa; Harmon Foundation, 1928, 1931, and 1933; Harmon College Art Traveling Exhibit, 1934-1935; Findlay Galleries, Chicago, 1935; American Negro Exposition, 1940; murals are in public buildings in Indiana, Illinois, West Virginia, and New York. Works are also owned by the Argentine Republic and the Haitian Government.

Sebree, Charles, painter and illustrator, New York. Born, Madisonville, Ky., 1914. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago for one year. Exhibits: the International Water Color Society, 1935; Katherine Kuh Gallery, Chicago, 1936; Federal Project Gallery, Chicago, 1937-1938; Breckenridge Gallery, 1938; Grace Horne Gallery, Boston, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940. Represented in the collections of the Renaissance Society, University of Chicago.

Smith, Hughie Lee, painter, Orangeburg, S.C. Born, Cleveland, O., 1914. Scholarship student at the Detroit Society of Arts and Crafts; Gilpin Players Scholarship student at the Cleveland Museum School of Art, post-graduate scholarship student. Instructor in Art, Claflin University, Orangeburg, S.C., 1939-1940. Exhibited at the Playhouse Settlement, 1937-1938; the Cleveland May Show, 1938 (3rd Prize, Freehand Drawing; 1st Honorable Mention in Linoleum Block Printing), 1939 (3rd Prize, Lithography), 1940 (2nd Prize, Lithography); American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940 (3rd Prize in Black and White); Karamu Artists, American Art Galleries, New York City, 1942; Atlanta University, 1943 (Purchase Award). Organized exhibit of Negro Artists in the Midwest in 1943. Currently working on "History of the Negro in the Navy."

Street, Thelma Johnson, painter, Chicago. Born, Yakima, Wash., 1912. Studied at the Art Museum School, Portland, the University of Oregon.

One-man shows at the de Young Museum, 1941, the Raymond and Raymond Galleries, New York City, 1942; the San Francisco Museum of Art; in 1943 the American Contemporary Gallery, the Little Gallery, Beverly Hills, the Art Institute of Chicago. Represented by work in the collections of the Museum of Modern Art.

Wells, James L., painter, Washington, D.C. Born, Atlanta, Ga., 1902. Studied at Columbia University (B.A. in Fine Arts) and the National Academy of Design (3 years). Now instructor in Art, Howard University. Exhibited at the Harmon Foundation, 1931 (Gold Award), (George E. Haynes Prize), 1935; Weyhe Galleries, 1934; Philadelphia Print Club, 1934; Harmon College Art Traveling Exhibition, 1934-1935; Dudensing Galleries, New York City, 1935; Dallas Exposition, 1936; Baltimore Museum, 1939; Howard University, 1937, 1938, 1939, and 1940; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Downtown Gallery, New York City; National Block Print Society; Albright Gallery, Buffalo; Phillips Memorial Gallery, Washington; Library of Congress; Butler Art Museum. One-man shows at the Delphic Galleries, New York City, 1932, and the Brooklyn Museum, 1932. Represented by work in the Phillips Memorial Gallery; Valentine Museum, Richmond, Va.; Thayer Museum, University of Kansas; Howard University; Hampton Institute.

White, Charles, painter, New York. Born, Chicago, 1918. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago (scholarship student); Art Students League, New York City; studied under Harry Sternberg, Mitchell Siporin, Edgar Britton, George E. Neal, and Briggs Dyer; Rosenwald Fellow, 1942-1944. Exhibits: Art Crafts Guild, Chicago, 1936; Federal Art Gallery, 1938; Du Sable High School, Chicago, 1939; Northwestern University, 1939; University of Illinois, 1939; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1940;

Renaissance Gallery, University of Chicago, 1940-1944; Library of Congress, 1940; Art Institute of Chicago, 1942-1943; Atlanta University, 1942; Institute of Modern Art, Boston, 1943; Brown University, 1943; Baltimore Museum, 1944; Newark Museum, 1944; Smith College, 1943; Aden-Bennet Gallery, Washington, D.C., 1944; Hampton Institute, 1944. Represented in the collections of Hampton Institute, the Newark Museum, and Howard University.

Wilson, Ellis, painter, New York. Born, Mayfield, Ky. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago (grad.); Charles S. Peterson Prize in Fine Arts. Guggenheim Fellow, 1944 (painted Negro life in the South). Exhibited widely throughout the country, including shows at the Harmon Foundation, 135th Street Library, New York City, Howard University, Dillard University, Atlanta University, Durham, N.C., the Detroit Museum, the American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; the New York World's Fair, 50 Rockefeller Plaza, the National Academy of Design, the G Place Gallery, Washington, D.C., and many New York City galleries.

Wilson, John, painter, Roxbury, Mass. Born, Boston, Mass., 1922. Scholarship student at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts for five years, including advanced work. Instructor in art, Samuel Adams School of Adult Education, Boston. Exhibited at Atlanta University, 1st National Negro Art Exhibit (John Hope Award), 2nd National Exhibit (1st Prize Painting, 3rd Prize Prints); Smith College, 1941; Wellesley College, Andover-Newton Theological Seminary; Institute of Modern Art, Boston, 1943 (Popular Prize), 1944; New Names in American Art, 1944; the Carnegie Institute, 1944. Represented in the collections of Smith College, the Museum of Modern Art, and Atlanta University.

Winslow, Vernon, painter, New Orleans, La. Born, Dayton, O. Studied at the Art Institute of Chicago; Chicago University (B.F.A.); Morehouse College; Bauhaus School of Design, Chicago; Syracuse University. Instructor in Fine Arts, Dillard University, New Orleans, La. Exhibits: the Dillard Arts Festival, 1940 (2nd Prize); Atlanta University Shows, 1942, 1943, and 1944 (2nd Prize in 1944). Works include murals at the Tennessee State College in 1937.

Woodruff, Hale, painter, Atlanta, Ga. Born, Cairo, Ill., 1900. Received art training at the John Herron Art Institute, Indianapolis (grad.); the Art Institute of Chicago; the Académie Moderne, Paris; the Académie Scandinave, Paris; under Tanner, 1927-1930; the Fogg Art Museum, Harvard University. Now art instructor at Atlanta University. Rosenwald Fellow, 1943-1944, 1944-1945. Exhibits: the Herron Art Institute, 1923, 1924, and 1926; the Harmon Foundation, 1926 (Bronze Award), 1928-1929 (Honorable Mention), 1931, 1933, and 1935; Art Institute of Chicago, 1927; Art Center, New York City, 1929; Pacquereau Gallery, 1930; Downtown Gallery, New York City, 1929, 1931-1939; Indiana State Fair, 1935-1939 (1st and 2nd Awards); Art Commentary on Lynching, New York City, 1935; the art museums in Los Angeles, San Diego, Boston, Kansas City, St. Louis, 1930-1931; Valentine Gallery, New York City, 1931; Feragil Gallery, New York City, 1931; High Museum, Atlanta, 1935, 1938, and 1940 (1st Award); New York World's Fair, 1939; Dallas Exposition, 1936; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Grace Horne Galleries, Boston, 1943; International Print Society, New York City, 1944. Represented by the Amistad Case Murals and murals depicting the history of Talladega College, Talladega College Library, Alabama, 1938-1940.

DEATH ROLL

1944

Abbott, Mrs. Robert S., wife of Robert Abbott, late founder and publisher of the *Chicago Defender*, died at Mercy Hospital, Benton Harbor, Mich., on March 26. Was at one time private secretary to the Illinois Attorney General.

Branch, Dr. Mary, 50, president of Tillotson College, died at City Hospital, Austin, Tex., on July 6. Born in Farmville, Va.; graduate of Virginia State College and took post-graduate work at the University of Chicago; appointed instructor of English at Virginia State College in 1924.

Bray, Bishop James Albert, 75, presiding Bishop of the Sixth Episcopal District, CME Church, died in Wrightsville, Ark., on September 1. Born in Franklin County, Ga.; graduate and postgraduate of Atlanta University and Wilberforce University Law School; attended the University of Chicago and Harvard University; former president of the Fraternal Council of Negro Churches; first vice president of the Chicago Church Federation; member of the board of directors of the NAACP and Chicago Urban League; president of the trustee board of Collins Chapel Hospital in Memphis, Tenn.; former president of Lane College, Jackson, Tenn., former president of Miles Memorial College, Birmingham, Ala.; former secretary of education for the CME Church.

Carter, Reverend Edward R., 86, noted minister, one of the founders of the Baptist World Alliance in London in 1905 and a member of its executive committee, died in Atlanta, Ga., on June 9. Born of slave parents; worked in Atlanta as cobbler; pastor of Friendship Baptist Church for 62 years; preached in England.

Clark, Dr. Joseph Samuel, 74, president-emeritus of Southern University, died at the Flint Goodridge Hospital in New Orleans on October

27. Born in Sparta, La.; graduate of Leland University; studied at Chicago University and Howard University; appointed president of Baton Rouge College in 1913; largely through his efforts, Louisiana established Southern University for Negroes at Scots Bluff; retired in 1938; a founder of the National Association of Colored Teachers; member of the Council of the American Geographical Society; persuaded the Louisiana legislature to establish a school for Negro delinquent youth near Baker, La., served as superintendent of the school until time of death.

Cook, Will Marion, 74, composer, died in Harlem Hospital in New York City on July 19. Born in Washington, D.C.; attended Oberlin University Conservatory in Ohio; won scholarship to study in Berlin under Joseph Joachim; studied with Anton Dvorak; in 1898 wrote music for Broadway production of Paul Lawrence Dunbar's "Clorindy," the origin of the cakewalk; other musicals include "The Casino Girl," "The Southerner," Williams' and Walker's "In Dahomey," "Abyssinia," and "Bandanna Land."

Dougherty, Romeo L., 59, New York pioneer sports and theater editor for the Negro press, died at his home in Jamaica, L.I., N.Y., on December 9. Born in St. Thomas, Virgin Islands; served as dramatics and sports editor of the New York *Amsterdam News* for twenty-five years; free-lanced from 1935 until time of death.

Flipper, Bishop Joseph Simeon, 85, senior Bishop of the AME Church, died at his home in Atlanta, Ga., on October 9. Born a slave in Atlanta; attended the missionary school of the Bethel AME Church in Atlanta; one of the first students to enter Atlanta University; commissioned by the governor in the state militia in 1879; trustee of Morris Brown College; dean

of Morris Brown College, theological department, in 1903; elected president of Morris Brown College in 1904; elected Bishop of the AME Church in 1908; erected Flipper Hall, boys' dormitory of Morris Brown College; erected the Park Normal and Industrial Institute at Savannah, Ga.; organized Morris Brown University.

Hale, Dr. William J., 68, founder and former president of Tennessee State A. and I. College, died in Tennessee on October 5. Born in Retro, Tenn.; attended Maryville College in Maryville, Tenn.; served as principal of Elmo Street High School in Chattanooga; president of Tennessee State College for Negroes from 1911-1943; received Harmon Foundation Medal in 1930; former president of Land Grant College Presidents.

Hayward, Col. William, 67, commander of the 369th Infantry Regiment in World War I, died October 13. Born in Nebraska City, Neb.; graduate of the University of Nebraska; former assistant district attorney of New York County; former United States attorney; won Distinguished Service Medal and *Croix de Guerre*; an officer of the Legion of Honor.

Holstein, Caspar, 67, Harlem sportsman, died in New York City on April 5. Born in the Virgin Islands; former Exalted Ruler of Monarch Lodge of Elks, New York; founder and president of the Virgin Islands Congressional Council; financed Opportunity scholarship awards for Negro writers; operated the Turf Club in Harlem; amassed a fortune in the gaming business known as "Policy," but died poor.

Johnson, Edward A., 83, first Negro in New York legislature, died at Sydenham Hospital in New York City on July 24. Born in Raleigh, N.C.; graduate of Atlanta University and Shaw University Law School; taught in the public schools of Atlanta and Raleigh, and at Shaw University Law School; was elected to New York State Assembly in 1917; author of *History*

of the Negro Race in America, History of Negro Soldiers in the Spanish-American War, and Light Ahead for the Negro.

Johnson, Henry, labor leader, died at the Bridewell Hospital in Chicago on October 24, slain during union meeting in Chicago. Former national director of the Packing House Workers' organizing committee; international representative for United Mine Workers.

Jones, McKissack McHenry, 39, prominent businessman, died in Chicago on July 21. Born in Vicksburg, Miss.; member of the Jones Brothers partnership, owners of the Ben Franklin Department Stores, a chain of hotels, and a dairy; left an estate of \$544,500.

Jones, Orville (Hoppy), 39, bass singer with the Inkspots quartet, died at his home in East Elmhurst, L.I., N.Y., on October 11. Born in Chicago; became famous as the "talking" bass singer of the widely known quartet.

Kelly, J. Levirt (Saint Louis), colorful politician, died in Chicago on April 7; Chicago political henchman; murdered as result of altercation concerning political feud.

Lane, Dr. James Franklin, 70, president of Lane College in Jackson, Tenn.; died at his home on December 11. Born in Jackson, Tenn.; son of founder of Lane College; attended Lane College, Walden University, University of Chicago, and Harvard University; served as head of the department of education at Lane College; appointed president of Lane College in 1907.

Lee, Dr. John Robert Edward, 74, president of Florida A. and M. College, died in Tallahassee, Fla., on April 6. Born in Seguin, Tex.; graduate and post-graduate of Bishop College, the University of Chicago, and Wisconsin University; taught Latin and history at Bishop College 1889-1899; director of academic department of Tuskegee Institute 1899-1915; a founder of National Association of

Teachers in Colored Schools in 1904; appointed principal of Lincoln High School in Kansas in 1915.

Lewis, James H., 103, nationally prominent lawyer and Chicago's oldest Civil War veteran, died at his home in Chicago on August 26. Born in Loudoun County, Va.; graduate of what is now Northwestern University Law School; born free, grandson of a revolutionary soldier; forced to move from Virginia when laws menaced free Negroes; enlisted in Fourth Illinois Cavalry in 1863; finished law school in 1892; practiced for sixty years in Chicago and became nationally known lawyer.

Page, Bishop E. M., 73, pioneer in organization of Church of God in Christ in America; died at the St. Paul Hospital in Dallas, Texas, on January 4. Born in Yazoo County, Miss., on May 9; was assigned to Dallas in 1914; made overseer of the Churches of God in Christ in Texas; ordained Bishop in 1935.

Starks, Dr. J. J., 71, president of Benedict College, died at the Good Samaritan-Waverly Hospital in Columbia, S.C., on January 4. Born in Greenwood County, S.C.; graduate of Benedict College and Morehouse College in Atlanta, Ga.; ordained in 1898; built the Seneca Institute at Seneca; former president of Morris College; appointed president of Benedict College in 1930; wrote autobiography, *Lo, These Many Years*.

Thompkins, Dr. William J., 60, physician and politician, died at Freedmen's Hospital in Washington, D.C., on August 4. Appointed Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia in 1934 by President Roosevelt and served until he died, longer than any previous

recorder. Born in Jefferson City, Mo.; graduate of the University of Colorado and Howard University Medical School (1905); was first Negro superintendent of General Hospital Number 2 in Kansas City, Mo., serving for six years; appointed assistant commissioner of health in Kansas City, Mo., in 1927; founded and published the *Kansas City American*, a weekly newspaper, for 15 years; founded the National Colored Democratic Association; initiated a number of outstanding improvements in the administration of the office of Recorder of Deeds; was main influence in having Congress appropriate \$500,000 for a new building, completed in 1942.

Vernon, Bishop William T., 73, former United States Register of Treasury, died at St. Margaret's Hospital in Kansas City, Kan., on July 25. Born in Lebanon, Mo.; graduate of Lincoln University in Jefferson City, Mo., and Wilberforce University Theological Seminary; president of Western University in Quindaro, Kan., 1896-1906; appointed Register of Treasury in 1906; former president of Campbell College in Jackson, Miss.; was elected bishop of the A.M.E. Church in 1920; instrumental in establishing the Mily C. Vernon School in Basutoland, Africa; retired from the church in 1933; returned to Western University as superintendent of the state industrial department; retired several years prior to his death.

Williams, Dr. Richard A., 66, physician and founder-president of the Royal Circle of Friends, died in Chicago in February. Born in Forrest City, Ark.; left an estate of a half million dollars.

1945

Burroughs, (Mrs.) Williana, 63, leading Negro Communist in the early twenties, died at the Staten Island Area Station Army Hospital on December 24. Born in Petersburg, Va.;

graduate of Hunter College, New York City; former teacher in New York City school system; former head of the Workers' School in New York City; suspended from public schools

for protestation against treatment of a fellow worker; spent eleven years in Russia; served on the *Moscow News* for eight years; was chief English language announcer for the Moscow radio; known throughout the War as the "Voice of Moscow."

Byrd, Dr. David Wellington, 76, a founder of the National Medical Association, died at his home in Norfolk, Va., on July 5; born in Ashland, O.; graduate of Baldwin-Wallace University; graduate of Meharry Medical College; took postgraduate work at Harvard University; established Norfolk's first venereal disease clinic; served as consultant to the Surgeon General of the United States Public Health Service.

Chisum, Melvin, 72, journalist and businessman, died in Philadelphia on July 9. Born in Texarkana, Tex.; operated hotel in Dallas; confidential secretary to Booker T. Washington; became realtor in 1904; founded the Wycomico County Bank and the newspaper *The Impending Conflict* in 1909 in Salisbury, Md.; served as efficiency expert for Bethlehem Steel in Alabama during World War I; became field secretary for the Associated Negro Press; later was confidential representative for Samuel Insull; operated the Premier News Service for the latter ten years of his life.

Clarke, Mrs. Dovie K., 79, nationally known church leader, died at Sydenham Hospital, New York City, on December 18. Born in Xenia, O.; graduate of Wilberforce University; taught in Cincinnati and at Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Mo., where her husband was president, and at Wilberforce University for twenty years; secretary of the parent body of the Women's Home and Foreign Missionary Society of the A.M.E. Church; was retired concert pianist.

Davis, Benjamin J., Sr., 69, politician and journalist, died at Harlem Hospital, New York City, on October 28. Born in Dawson, Ga.; attended Atlanta University; formerly secretary

of the Grand United Order of Odd Fellows; member of the Republican National Committee during the administration of Calvin Coolidge; delegate-at-large from Georgia to twenty-eight Republican national conventions. Formerly owner and publisher of the *Atlanta Independent*, and was president of the Baptist Laymen's League; at the time of his death, he was editor of the *National Baptist Review* and secretary of the State Republican Club of Ga.; was father of City Councilman Benjamin J. Davis of New York City.

Harrison, Judge William, 71, former assistant attorney general of Illinois, died at Provident Hospital in Chicago on September 22. Born in Clay County, Miss.; graduate of Roger Williams University; postgraduate of Walden University; LL.D., Livingstone College; postgraduate of the University of Chicago; mathematics instructor at Roger Williams University for four years; first attorney in Oklahoma to attack the grandfather clause which prevented Negroes from voting; appointed special judge of the superior court of Oklahoma County, Okla.; was assistant attorney general of Illinois from 1925-1928; served several years as a member of the Illinois Board of Pardons and Paroles.

Hershaw, Lafayette M., 82, died at Freedmen's Hospital, Wash., D.C., on August 29. Born in Clay County, N.C.; graduate of Atlanta University and Howard University Law School; formerly instructor of International Law and Contracts at the Robert Terrell Law School in Washington, D.C.; was one of the twenty-three organizers of the Niagara Movement, predecessor of the NAACP; former president of the Bethel Literary and Historical Association, and the Pen and Pencil Club; a trustee of Atlanta University for 28 years; was a law examiner for the Department of Interior for many years; president-emeritus of the Robert H. Terrell Law School in Washington.

Johnson, Dr. Joseph L., 72, for-

mer minister to Liberia, died at his home in Columbus, O., on July 18. Born in Darke County, O.; attended Earlham College, also Northern University, and Howard University Medical School; served as medical examiner for the United States Pension Office; practiced privately from 1910-1915; was United States Minister to Liberia from 1915-1918; represented Liberia at the Versailles Conference; chairman of the Negro division of the National Democratic Committee in 1932; president of the board of trustees of Wilberforce University for several years.

Jones, Richard, 52, noted composer of popular songs, died at his home in Chicago, on December 8. Born in Donaldsville, La.; was one of New Orleans's first "jazz kings"; pianist and scout for the Okeh Record Company; was the first to record the voice of Cab Calloway; later was connected with the Leed Music Company and Mercury Records; among his most popular compositions was the recent song hit, "Caldonia"; was a member of the American Society of Composers, Authors and Publishers.

Mitchell, William, retired business manager and one of the founders of the *St. Louis Argus*, died at his home in St. Louis on March 10. Born in Cotton Grove, Ala.; entered the newspaper business in 1912.

Nickerson, William Jr., 66, founder and president of the Golden State Mutual Life Insurance Company, died at the Good Samaritan Hospital in Los Angeles on November 14. Born in San Jacinto County, Tex.; founded the *Houston Observer* during the first World War.

Perry, Mae, 47, adopted granddaughter of the late Mme C. J. Walker, reputed millionaire, died at her home in Indianapolis, December 6. Born in Noblesville, Ind.; graduate of Spelman College in Atlanta; was given

wedding by grandmother which reputedly cost one million dollars; was an executive in the offices of the Walker Manufacturing Company in Indianapolis, at that time one of the largest, if not the largest and wealthiest, firms operated by Negroes.

Prescott, Judge Patrick B., 53, former municipal judge, died at his home in Chicago on December 13. Born in New Orleans; was appointed judge of the Municipal Court in 1942; was assistant city corporation counsel, special assistant traction attorney, and special commissioner of the circuit and superior courts.

Richardson, Capt. Adrian, 53, captain of the U.S.S. *Frederick Douglass*, Liberty Ship, during World War II, died at the Medical Center, New York City, on November 27. Born in Phillesburg, Dutch West Indies; former master of a transport ship in World War I; received a limited license at the age of 18, and an unlimited license at 21; first Negro to take a ship out of New Orleans; the *Frederick Douglass* was torpedoed and sunk in 1943; he was then assigned to the U.S.S. *Robert Lowry*.

Tisdale, Clarence, 65, ballad singer, died at his home in New York City on January 1. Sang for thirty years in London, Paris, Australia, and New York; member of the famous Clef Club of Harlem.

Work, Dr. Monroe, 80, founder and retired editor of the *Negro Yearbook*, died at his home at Tuskegee Institute, Ala., in May. Born in Iredell County, N.C.; graduate of Chicago Theological Seminary and the University of Chicago; taught at Georgia State College, Savannah; was director of the department of research at Tuskegee Institute from 1908 until he was retired a few years before his death; was compiler of an extensive bibliography on the Negro.

EARLY 1946

Cullen, Countee, 42, outstanding poet, died at Sydenham Hospital on January 2. Born in New York City; graduate of New York University; postgraduate of Harvard University; started career by winning poetry contest at De Witt Clinton High School in 1922; was awarded second prize in the Witter Bynner undergraduate poetry contest at New York University by the Poetry Society of America; in 1925 won the John Reed Memorial Prize and other prizes; in 1928 received the Guggenheim Memorial Fellowship and studied abroad; recently collaborated with Arna Bontemps in writing "St. Louis Woman," a Broad-

way play; for eleven years until time of his death taught French at the Frederick Douglass Junior High School in New York City.

Kersey, George T., 80, former member of the Illinois legislature, died at his home on January 8, in Chicago; senior partner in the firm of morticians, Kersey, McGowan, and Morsell in Chicago.

Washington, Booker T., Jr., 57, son of Booker T. Washington, died in Chicago on February 5. Born in Tuskegee, Ala.; graduate of Tuskegee Institute; served several years as commandant of cadets at Tuskegee; entered real estate business in California.

AFFILIATED BRANCHES OF THE NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE

Akron 4, O.

Akron Community Service Center
199 Perkins Street
Raymond R. Brown, Exec. Sec'y
Mrs. Dorothy J. Cottman, Ind. Sec'y

Albany 5, N.Y.

Albany Interracial Council
122 Second Street
Edward Kennell, Exec. Sec'y

Anderson, Ind.

The Negro Welfare Association
1100 West 14th Street
Robert E. Wilkerson, Exec. Sec'y

Atlanta 3, Ga.

Atlanta Urban League
239 Auburn Avenue, N.E.
Mrs. Grace Townes Hamilton, Exec. Sec'y
Robert Thompson, Ind. Sec'y

Baltimore 17, Md.

Baltimore Urban League
2404 Pennsylvania Avenue
A. J. Allen, Exec. Sec'y
Cecil H. Scott, Ind. Sec'y

Boston 20, Mass.

Boston Urban League
22 Whittier Street
John Caswell Smith, Jr., Exec. Sec'y
Edward Cooper, Ind. Sec'y

Buffalo 4, N.Y.

Memorial Center and Urban League
155 Cedar Street
William L. Evans, Exec. Sec'y
E. Vincent Suitt, Ind. Sec'y

Canton 4, O.

Canton Urban League
819 Liberty Avenue, S.E.
John W. Crawford, Exec. Sec'y

Chicago 16, Ill.

Chicago Urban League
3032 South Wabash Avenue
A. L. Foster, Exec. Director
Howard D. Gould, Ind. Sec'y

Cincinnati 2, O.

Division of Negro Welfare
The Community Chest of Cincinnati
and Hamilton County
312 West 9th Street
Arnold B. Walker, Exec. Sec'y

Cleveland 4, O.

Cleveland Urban League
8311 Quincy Avenue
Sidney R. Williams, Exec. Sec'y
Howard M. Nash, Ind. Sec'y

Columbus 3, O.

Columbus Urban League
107 North Monroe Street
Nimrod B. Allen, Exec. Sec'y
William W. Layton, Ind. Sec'y

Detroit 1, Mich.

Detroit Urban League
208 Mack Avenue
John C. Dancy, Director
Francis A. Kornegay, Vocational Sec'y

Elizabeth 4, N.J.

Urban League of Eastern Union County
645 Elizabeth Avenue
William M. Ashby, Exec. Sec'y

Englewood, N.J.

Englewood Urban League
34 East Palisade Avenue
Mrs. Marion Forrester, Exec. Sec'y

Flint 3, Mich.

Urban League of Flint
412 CIO Building
432 North Saginaw Street
Charles E. Eason, Exec. Sec'y

Fort Wayne 2, Ind.

Wheatley Social Center
436-38 East Douglas Avenue
John E. Ridley, Exec. Sec'y

Fort Worth 3, Tex.

Fort Worth Urban League
411½ East 9th Street
Mrs. Cernoria Johnson, Exec. Sec'y

Gary, Ind.

Gary Urban League
1448 Broadway
Joseph C. Chapman, Exec. Sec'y

Grand Rapids, Mich.

Brough Community Association
554 Henry Avenue, S.E.
Edward P. Simms, Sr., Director

Kansas City 8, Mo.

Urban League of Kansas City
1805 Vine Street
Thomas A. Webster, Exec. Sec'y
James S. Hadley, Ind. Sec'y

Lincoln, Neb.

Lincoln Urban League
2030 T Street
Clyde W. Malone, Exec. Sec'y

Little Rock, Ark.

Urban League of Greater Little Rock
914 Gaines Street
Clifford Minton, Exec. Sec'y

Los Angeles 11, Cal.

Urban League of Los Angeles
2510 South Central Avenue
William M. Jones, Acting Exec. Sec'y

Louisville 2, Ky.

Louisville Urban League
418 South 5th Street

Marion, Ind.

Carver Community Center
1719 South Florence Street
Mrs. Merle Thruston, Exec. Sec'y

Massillon, O.

Massillon Urban League
227 Erie Street, South
Alton W. Thomas, Exec. Sec'y

Memphis, Tenn.

Memphis Urban League
546 Beale Avenue
James A. McDaniel, Exec. Sec'y

Miami 36, Fla.

Negro Service Council
646 N.W. Second Avenue
Edward T. Graham, Exec. Sec'y

Milwaukee 5, Wis.

Milwaukee Urban League
904 West Vine Street
William V. Kelley, Exec. Sec'y

Minneapolis 1, Minn.

Minneapolis Urban League
202 Times Annex
James Tapley Wardlaw, Exec. Sec'y
William Seabron, Ind. Sec'y

New Brunswick, N.J.

New Brunswick Urban League
246 George Street
Louis Migliorini, President

New Orleans 13, La.

New Orleans Urban League
1010 Dryades Street
Clarence A. Laws, Exec. Sec'y (on leave)

Grady Farley, Ind. Sec'y

New York 30, N.Y.

Urban League of Greater New York
202 West 136th Street
Edward S. Lewis, Exec. Dir.
Robert J. Elzy, General Sec'y
Manhattan Branch: 202 West 136th St.

George E. De Mar, Ind. Sec'y
Brooklyn Branch: 105 Fleet Place
Miss Gertrude A. Tanneyhill, Ind. Sec'y

Newark 3, N.J.

New Jersey Urban League
58 West Market Street
George Robinson, Exec. Sec'y
Roy E. Norris, Ind. Sec'y

- Omaha 10, Neb.**
Omaha Urban League
2213 Lake Street
Duward R. Crooms, Acting Exec. Sec'y
- Philadelphia 46, Penn.**
Armstrong Association of Philadelphia
1434 Lombard Street
Wayne L. Hopkins, Exec. Sec'y
Lewis J. Carter, Ind. Sec'y
- Phoenix, Ariz.**
Phoenix Urban League
1202 East Washington Street
- Pittsburgh 19, Penn.**
Urban League of Pittsburgh
1300 Fifth Avenue
R. Maurice Moss, Exec. Sec'y
Charles W. Washington, Ind. Sec'y
- Portland 4, Ore.**
Portland Urban League
6 S.W. 6th Avenue
Edwin C. Berry, Exec. Sec'y
- Providence 3, R.I.**
Providence Urban League
433 Westminster Street, Room 14
James N. Williams, Exec. Sec'y
- Richmond 20, Va.**
Richmond Urban League
112 W. Charity Street
Wiley A. Hall, Exec. Sec'y
Llewellyn W. Davis, Ind. Sec'y
- San Francisco, Cal.**
San Francisco Urban League
45 Second Street
Seaton W. Manning, Exec. Sec'y
- St. Louis 3, Mo.**
Urban League of St. Louis
3017 Delmar Boulevard
John T. Clark, Exec. Sec'y
Richard R. Jefferson, Ind. Sec'y
- St. Paul 1, Minn.**
St. Paul Urban League
402 Metropolitan Bank Bldg.
S. Vincent Owens, Exec. Sec'y
Charles F. Rogers, Ind. Sec'y
- Seattle 4, Wash.**
Seattle Urban League
326 Railway Exchange Bldg.
Second Avenue at Cherry St.
Dean E. Hart, Exec. Sec'y
- Springfield, Ill.**
Springfield Urban League
234 South 15th Street
G. B. Winston, Exec. Sec'y
- Springfield, Mass.**
Dunbar Community League
643 Union Street
Dr. William N. DeBerry, Exec. Sec'y
- Tampa 2, Fla.**
Tampa Urban League
1615 Lamar Avenue
- Toledo 2, O.**
Frederick Douglass Community Ass'n
201 Pinewood Avenue at 13th Street
W. Robert Smalls, Exec. Dir.
Warren Grissom, Ind. Sec'y
- Warren, O.**
Warren Urban League
727 South Park Avenue
Clarence A. Parham, Exec. Sec'y
- Washington 1, D.C.**
Washington Urban League
1538 New Jersey Avenue, N.W.
Joseph H. Douglass, Exec. Sec'y
Livingston E. Beane, Ind. Sec'y
- Waterbury 25, Conn.**
Pearl Street Neighbor House
Cor. of Hopkins and Pearl Streets
Mrs. Leila T. Alexander, Director
- White Plains, N.Y.**
White Plains Urban League
6 Depot Plaza
Miss Bertha Lee Herrington, Exec. Sec'y
- Southern Division:**
National Urban League
158 Auburn Avenue, N. E., Room 4
Atlanta, Ga.

SPINGARN MEDAL WINNERS

The Spingarn Medal awards were instituted by the late Joel E. Spingarn, chairman of the board of directors of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, in 1914.

The awards are in the form of gold medals and are given each year to the colored person who, according to the board, shall have reached the highest achievement in his field of activity.

The winners of the awards follow:

1915, **Ernest E. Just**, head of the department of biology, Howard University, for research in biology.

1916, **Major Charles Young**, United States Army, for organizing the Liberian constabulary and developing roads in Liberia.

1917, **Harry T. Burleigh**, composer and singer, for work in creative music.

1918, **William Stanley Braithwaite**, poet, literary critic, for distinction in literature.

1919, **Archibald H. Grimke**, president, American Negro Academy and former United States consul at Santo Domingo, for achievement in politics and literature.

1920, **William E. Burghardt DuBois**, author, editor of *The Crisis*, for the founding of the Pan-African Congress.

1921, **Charles S. Gilpin**, actor, for his outstanding performance in Eugene O'Neill's play, "Emperor Jones."

1922, **Mary B. Talbert**, former president of the National Association of Colored Women, for leadership in restoring the home of Frederick Douglass in Washington as a shrine.

1923, **George Washington Carver**, head of the department of chemical research at Tuskegee Institute, Ala., for his work in agricultural chemistry.

1924, **Roland Hayes**, tenor, for his international reputation in the music world.

1925, **James Weldon Johnson**, secretary of the NAACP, former United States consul in Venezuela and Nicaragua, for achievement in literature.

1926, **Carter G. Woodson**, historian and educator, for collecting and publishing the records of the Negro in America.

1927, **Anthony Overton**, businessman, for his achievement in securing the admission of the Victory Life Insurance Company into New York State.

1928, **Charles W. Chestnutt**, novelist and short story writer, for his pioneer work in the field of literature, depicting the life of Negroes in story form.

1929, **Mordecai Wyatt Johnson**, president of Howard University, for his success in administering the affairs of the university as its first Negro president.

1930, **Henry A. Hunt**, principal, Fort Valley High and Industrial School, Georgia, for his 25 years of work in the field of education in the South.

1931, **Richard B. Harrison**, actor, for his portrayal of the "Lawd" in Marc Connelly's play, "The Green Pastures."

1932, **Robert Russa Moton**, president of Tuskegee Institute, for his "thoughtful leadership in conservative opinion and action," his stand on education in Haiti, and his support of equal opportunity for the Negro in public schools.

1933, **Max Yergan**, a secretary of the Y.M.C.A., for his work among the natives of South Africa where he spent ten years, and his work in fostering interracial amity between white and Negro students.

1934, **William Taylor Burwell Williams**, field agent of the Jeanes and Slater Funds and dean of the college of Tuskegee Institute, for his work in education.

1935, **Mary McLeod Bethune**, president of Bethune-Cookman College, Florida, for her founding and building up of the school against great difficulties.

1936, **John Hope**, president of Atlanta University, for his successes in the field of education.

1937, **Walter White**, secretary of the NAACP, for his outstanding work in leading the fight for the passage of a federal antilynching bill and for civil rights for Negroes.

1938, **Marian Anderson**, contralto, for international fame in the field of music.

1939, Dr. Louis T. Wright, physician and surgeon, for outstanding work in surgery and civic affairs.

1940, Richard Wright, novelist, for writing one of the best-selling novels of the year, *Native Son*.

1941, A. Philip Randolph, president, Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, for initiating the March-on-Washington demonstration.

1942, Judge William H. Hastie, for his distinguished career as a jurist and an uncompromising champion of equal justice, who resigned from his position as civilian aide to the Secretary of War in protest against discriminatory treatment of Negroes in the armed forces.

1943, Dr. Charles R. Drew, professor of surgery, Howard University, for his work in blood plasma banks,

which served as a model for the system of blood banks used throughout the country and in England.

1944, Paul Robeson, actor, for his outstanding dramatic performances and for his insistence upon a democratic policy toward Negroes, both on the stage and in everyday life; especially for his acting in the role of Othello in the Shakespearean drama on Broadway.

1945, Thurgood Marshall, chief counsel for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, for his distinguished service as a lawyer, before the United States Supreme Court and inferior courts, in behalf of civil rights for the Negro, particularly in the Texas Primary Case.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN: 1944

With the opening of the presidential campaign in 1944, Negroes got together on the issues of vital interest to them. Twenty-five national organizations met and agreed on a statement of their demands, which they sent to both the Republican and Democratic national conventions.

The main demands were: Prosecution of the war to total victory, abolition of the poll tax by an act of Congress, passage of a federal antilynching bill, the unsegregated integration of Negroes into the armed forces, establishment of a permanent federal fair employment practices committee, a foreign policy of international co-operation, price control, expansion of unsegregated government-financed housing, and the preservation of organized labor.

On the war issue the statement declared: "We are opposed to any negotiated peace as advocated by the Hitler-like forces within our country. Victory must crush Hitlerism at home as well as abroad."

The statement continued:

We insist upon the right to vote in every state, unrestricted by poll taxes, white primaries, or lily-white party conventions, the gerrymandering of districts, or any other device designed to disfranchise Negroes and other voters.

No injustice embitters Negroes more than continued segregation and discrimination in the armed forces. The national policy of segregating Negroes in the armed forces violates every principle of democracy. Any party or candidate that hopes to win the support and respect of Negroes and all pro-

gressive groups must prove a belief in democracy by adopting a democratic program for the integration of all Americans into unsegregated military forces and supporting federal legislation designed to assure all men and women in the armed forces the peaceful enjoyment of all rights of citizenship in every American community.

Concerning imperialism and colonial exploitation, the statement asserted that "political and economic democracy must displace the present system of exploitation in Africa, the West Indies, India and all other colonial areas," and called for a foreign policy which recognizes China as an equal ally and opposes "either perpetuation or extension of exploitation based upon economic or political advantage to 'white' nations at the expense of two thirds of the people of the earth who are brown, yellow, or black of skin."

Concerning legislation for all Americans, the statement read:

In evaluating the merits of parties and candidates we must include all issues—those touching the life of Negroes as a group as well as those affecting the entire country. The party or candidate that refuses to help control prices, or fails to support the extension of social security, or refuses to support a progressive public program for full postwar employment, or opposes an enlarged and unsegregated program of government-financed housing, or seeks to destroy organized labor, is as much the enemy of Negroes as is he

who would prevent Negroes from voting.

We hereby serve notice that if either major political party shall nominate for President or Vice-President a candidate of vacillating or reactionary character, or with an anti-Negro record, it will be vigorously opposed by Negro voters.

Organizations whose representatives signed the message were:

The Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority, Alpha Phi Alpha Fraternity, AME Church, AME Zion Church, Association of Colored Railway Trainmen and Locomotive Firemen, International Association of Railway Employees, Birmingham, Ala., National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, Council on African Affairs, Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Elks (I.B.P.O.E.W.), International Longshoremen's Association, Kappa Alpha Psi Fraternity, Methodist Church, National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses, National Bar Association, National Council of Negro Women, National Maritime Union, Negro Labor Committee (CIO-A. F. of L.), Omega Psi Phi Fraternity, People's Movement, Phi Beta Sigma Fraternity, Progressive Voters League, Social Action Committee of CME Church, UAW-CIO, Washington Bureau NAACP.

Republican Convention

Eighteen Negro delegates from eighteen states and the District of Columbia, and twenty-seven alternates, attended the National Republican Convention when it opened in Chicago in June, 1944. The racially mixed delegations from Mississippi, Georgia, and South Carolina were seated, defeating all-white contesting delegations from those states.

The Republicans named no separate Negro chairman to head up the Negro committee as was done in a 1940 campaign. Instead they named Dr. C. B. Powell, co-publisher and editor

of the New York *Amsterdam News*, assistant director of publicity.

The majority of Negroes in the party favored Governor Thomas E. Dewey of New York as the G.O.P. presidential candidate. He was subsequently nominated with Governor John W. Bricker of Ohio as his running mate for vice-president.

Democratic Convention

Thirty-odd Negro delegates were seated at the National Democratic Convention, which met in Chicago in July, 1944. Among the highlights of the convention was the refusal of the executive committee to seat the nine members of the all-Negro delegation from South Carolina, who had been elected by the newly formed Progressive Democratic Party of the state (Negro), which was organized by Dr. Osceola McKaine of Columbia in an effort to combat the refusal of the southern state's Democratic committee to permit Negroes to vote in the primaries.

A resolution urging the renomination of both President Franklin Delano Roosevelt and Vice-President Henry A. Wallace was unanimously adopted by a caucus of Negro delegates attending the convention. The convention nominated President Roosevelt and Senator Harry Truman as vice-presidential candidate.

Line-up of Negro Press

No complete survey of the extent to which the Negro press supported either the Republican or the Democratic ticket in the 1944 election campaign has been made. From various incomplete surveys it appears that the press was pretty well divided between the candidates.

Although the two largest newspapers, in the matter of circulation, supported the Dewey-Bricker ticket, the preponderance of smaller ones supporting the Roosevelt-Truman ticket might have balanced the scales in favor of the Democratic candidates, or at

least have nearly equalized the support.

A survey of the political stand of thirty of the newspapers, made by *PEP* (*Publisher, Editor, and Printer*, a monthly magazine), gives the line-up as follows:

Of the fourteen newspapers with audited circulations, these supported Dewey (circulation in parenthesis): Pittsburgh *Courier* (257,519), *Afro-American* chain (239,596), New York *Amsterdam News* (84,574), *Kansas City Call* (35,993), and *Philadelphia Tribune* (12,256), making a total circulation of 629,939.

Of the audited newspapers, these supported Roosevelt: *Chicago Defender* (202,631), *Norfolk Journal and Guide* (68,772), *Houston Informer* chain (52,199), New York *People's Voice* (29,243), *Michigan Chronicle* (25,866), *Cleveland Call and Post* (23,637), *Louisiana Weekly* (19,443), *Louisville Defender* (16,571), and *Los Angeles Sentinel* (15,892), making a total circulation of 454,254.

Although the total circulation of the audited newspapers supporting Dewey was nearly 200,000 larger than those supporting Roosevelt, *PEP's* survey gives fifteen of the smaller newspapers backing Roosevelt, while another survey gave nine supporting Dewey. The circulations of these unaudited papers range from about 3000 to 20,000 each.

POLITICAL PLATFORMS OF THE TWO MAJOR PARTIES IN 1944

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, largest Negro national organization, declares itself politically independent and does not endorse any political party or its leadership. Of the two major parties' national election platforms in the 1944 presidential campaign, the NAACP endorsed only one plank in the Republican platform, and that was its section pledging establishment by federal legislation of a permanent fair employment practices committee.

The organization termed the Republican plank dealing with antilynching legislation too weak because it did not state whether such legislation should be federal, state, or municipal, and did not pledge to vote cloture in Congress if such a bill should come up for a vote and be threatened with a filibuster.

The association stated that it did not place hope in the plank proposing a Congressional investigation of the treatment of Negroes in the armed forces, and termed "most objectionable" its proposal calling for a Constitutional Amendment to abolish the poll tax.

The Democratic party's statement was called a "splinter" by the association, which stated, "to call it a plank is a misnomer." It went on record as declaring that neither party's platform on the Negro "is satisfactory to intelligent Negroes."

The sections of the platforms dealing with Negroes in the two major parties' planks follow:

Republican Platform

We pledge an immediate congressional investigation to ascertain the extent to which mistreatment, segregation and discrimination against Negroes who are in our armed forces are impairing morale and efficiency, and the adoption of corrective legislation.

We pledge the establishment by federal legislation of a permanent fair employment practice commission.

The payment of any poll tax should not be a condition of voting in federal elections and we favor immediate submission of a constitutional amendment for its abolition.

We favor legislation against lynching and pledge our sincere efforts in behalf of its early enactment.

Democratic Platform

We believe that racial and religious minorities have the right to live, develop and vote equally with all citizens and share the rights that are guaranteed by our Constitution. Congress should exert its full constitutional powers to protect those rights.

THE NEGRO VOTE IN CERTAIN KEY CITIES

(From the *Chicago Defender*)

(Note: The wards listed are those in which Negro residents predominate.)

Roosevelt	Dewey
Chicago	
2nd and 3rd wards	
52,355—64.1%	29,262—35.9%
New York	
four Harlem districts	
116,044—79%	30,688—21%

Roosevelt**Dewey**

Philadelphia	
eight Negro wards	
83,757—70.3%	35,447—29.7%
Pittsburgh	
3rd and 5th wards	
16,115—80.4%	3903—19.6%
Detroit	
seven Negro wards	
41,739—79.6%	10,683—20.4%
Baltimore	
105 Negro precincts	
36,705—63.4%	21,189—36.6%
St. Louis	
five Negro wards	
29,592—61.7%	18,333—38.3%
Kansas City, Mo.	
2nd, 4th, and 11th wards	
15,776—64.2%	8765—35.8%
Louisville, Ky.	
147 Negro precincts	
16,318	13,614

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON FAIR EMPLOYMENT PRACTICE

Background

The President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice, commonly known as the FEPC, was set up by Presidential Executive Order No. 8802, issued on June 25, 1941. It was greeted by Negroes as the most significant move on the part of the government in their behalf since the Emancipation Proclamation.

The duty of the FEPC was "to receive and investigate complaints of discrimination" in defense industries, and later in war industries and allied work, "in violation of the order," and "to take appropriate steps to redress the grievances it finds to be valid." Its purpose was to abolish discrimination in industry because of race, color, creed or national origin.

The order, written by President Roosevelt, stated, in part:

I do hereby reaffirm the policy of the United States that there

shall be no discrimination in the employment of workers in defense industries or government because of race, creed, color, or national origin, and I do hereby declare that it is the duty of employers and of labor organizations, in furtherance of said policy and of this order, to provide the full and equitable participation of all workers in defense industries without discrimination because of race, creed, color, or national origin.

The creation of the committee followed a threat by the March-on-Washington movement, founded by A. Philip Randolph, president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters, during the early days of defense preparation, to organize fifty thousand Negroes to march to Washington in demonstration against discrimination, particularly in defense industries and government employment.

The committee members appointed by the President were Milton P. Webster, vice-president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters; Earl B. Dickerson, attorney from Chicago; Mark F. Ethridge (white), publisher of the *Louisville Courier Journal*; Philip Murray (white), president of the Congress of Industrial Organizations; William Green (white), president of the American Federation of Labor; and David Sarnoff (white), president of the Radio Corporation of America. They served without pay.

During the remainder of 1941 and early 1942, it was generally conceded the FEPC accomplished much in advancing the employment of Negroes. As time wore on, however, its effectiveness began to bog down, due largely, it was thought, to the campaign waged against it by southern congressmen, and partly to the committee's lack of enforcement authority. As 1943 approached, the fear arose that the FEPC was doomed to further ineffectiveness and failure.

1943 Activities

The year 1943 began with the status of the committee not fully settled. Funds for its continuance were in jeopardy and the agency was considered too understaffed to carry on its work adequately. On January 11, the committee received the hardest jolt of its career up to this time when Paul V. McNutt, administrator of the War Manpower Commission, under which the FEPC had been placed, announced that he had postponed indefinitely the hearings on complaints against 23 railroads, mainly in the South, which hearings had been scheduled in an effort to investigate and remedy discrimination against Negroes, especially enginemen and firemen.

To make matters worse, later in January the chairman of the committee, Dr. Malcolm S. McLean, former president of Hampton Institute, resigned to enter the Navy. Within a

few days, two other members resigned: Mark Ethridge and David Sarnoff, both white. Two of its attorneys also resigned, Charles H. Houston and Harold A. Stevens.

To many it seemed that the FEPC was dead, but others clamored for its rehabilitation. Then, on February 4, came the announcement from the White House that President Roosevelt had scheduled a conference with the committee members to consider strengthening the committee's scope and powers.

On February 28, the conference met with the President and adopted a program calling for restoration of the agency to its original independent status in the Executive Office of the President, as Negroes had requested, and for a more adequate budget. Monsignor Frank J. Haas (white), of Catholic University in Washington, was appointed chairman at this time.

On May 27, the President issued a new order, No. 9346, under which a new FEPC committee would be set up in the Office of Emergency Management under the Executive Office. Among the expanded provisions made was one stating that contracting agencies of the government "shall include in all contracts hereafter negotiated or renegotiated by them a provision obligating the contractor not to discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, creed, color, or national origin."

On July 2, the new committee was announced. It included, beside the chairman, John Brophy (white), CIO official; Milton P. Webster, vice-president of the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters; Boris Shiskin (white), supervisor of employment of the International Harvester Company; and P. Bernard Young, Sr., publisher of the *Norfolk Journal and Guide*.

On September 15, the thrice-postponed railroad hearings got under way and occupied the major attention of the committee for the remainder of the year.

On October 7, Monsignor Haas resigned the chairmanship and Malcolm Ross (white) was appointed to succeed him. On November 24, the FEPC announced its findings on the railroad hearings, in which it declared the railroad and the unions operating them guilty of discriminatory practices. No further action was taken on this matter, however, throughout the life of the FEPC.

1944 Activities

The FEPC continued on its difficult and uneven path throughout 1944. In June, it narrowly escaped being abolished by an amendment to the War Agencies Appropriation Bill, calling for the striking out of its appropriation for the coming fiscal year. Strong fight by FEPC supporters, led on the floor by Rep. Vito Marcantonio (white, American Labor Party, N.Y.), and Rep. William L. Dawson (D., Ill.), defeated the amendment.

Meanwhile bills to create a permanent FEPC had been introduced in both Houses of Congress, following strong pressure from Negroes and sympathetic whites; and in September the Senate Committee on Education and Labor approved its FEPC bill with one dissenting vote, that of Allen J. Ellender (D., La.).

President Roosevelt had pledged his support of the measure earlier in a conference with several Negro leaders at the White House.

In November, the House Committee on Labor approved its FEPC bill by a vote of 9 to 5. Neither bill came up for a vote on the floor during the year.

1945 Activities

When the 79th Congress opened in January, 1945, seven bills for the creation of a permanent FEPC were introduced in the House and several in the Senate. Later these measures were merged into single bipartisan bills in both Houses. In the House, the bill was known as the Norton measure,

for Rep. Mary Norton (D., N.J.), one of its leading sponsors; and in the Senate it was known as the Chavez bill, for Dennis Chavez (D., N.Mex.).

The bills were approved by committees in both Houses, but neither bill could be brought to a vote in the respective bodies.

In the House, the Rules Committee bottled up the measure; and in the Senate, action was prevented by threat of a filibuster by certain southern Senators.

This stalemate in the effort to establish a permanent FEPC continued through the year, notwithstanding the support of President Harry S. Truman, who had succeeded to that office following the death of President Roosevelt in April.

In June, President Truman wrote a letter to the House Rules Committee urging it to clear the bill, saying in part: "The principles and policy of fair employment practice should be established as a part of our national law."

In his message to the Congress in September, after its return from the summer recess, President Truman again urged the creation of a permanent fair employment practices committee. "The Fair Employment Practice Committee is continuing during the transition period," he said. "I have already requested that legislation be enacted placing the Fair Employment Practice Committee on a permanent basis. I repeat this recommendation."

Meanwhile, the temporary FEPC was dying a rapid death. By November, all except three of its field offices had closed and its personnel drastically reduced because of its limited budget.

At this time a bitter controversy was brewing between the FEPC and the President on the matter of the refusal of the Capital Transit Company in Washington to employ Negro conductors, motormen, and traffic checkers.

The public conveyances in this city had been handed over for several years because of lack of sufficient

workers to carry the swollen load of residents of Washington brought to the city for employment in the government's war and reconversion activities. For three years the matter of discrimination in employment by the Capital Transit had been pending. Hearings had been held and discrimination had been established.

Meanwhile a second strike over hours and wages was threatened by the employees of the transit company, and on November 21, President Truman issued an order for the government to take over the company and conduct its operation. While the company was in government hands, the FEPC wrote a directive which it planned to issue on November 23, ordering the company to cease its discriminatory policies.

Without notice to the FEPC or giving it a chance to be heard, President Truman ordered the group not to issue its antidiscrimination directive to the company. The committee then wrote an urgent letter to the President asking for a conference on the matter. After no reply had come from Mr. Truman by December 3, Charles H. Houston resigned from the committee in protest. Mr. Houston had been appointed to the committee during the previous March, following the resignation of another member.

The President accepted his resignation and Mr. Houston then released correspondence between himself and the President concerning the Capital Transit affair.

Explaining the point of view of the committee on the matter, Houston's letter of resignation said, among other things:

Your action in the Capital Transit case means that you do not hesitate to seize Capital Transit when employees strike in violation of a private collective bargaining agreement, but will not move, or permit the committee to move to effectuate the national non-dis-

criminatory employment policy declared in Presidential executive orders. . . . The very fact that the committee has to surmise the reasons why you ordered it not to issue the decision and why you refused it a conference, makes the position of the committee intolerable.

In his letter accepting Mr. Houston's resignation, President Truman explained his actions thus:

When it was found necessary under the wartime powers conferred upon the President by the Congress to seize the Capital Transit property, the conditions under which the property was to be operated were the same as those of any other property so seized. The law requires that when the government seizes a property under such circumstances, it shall be operated under the terms and conditions of employment which were in effect at the time possession of such plant, mine, or facility was so taken.

In view of the apparent contradiction between the law and the order which the Fair Employment Practices Committee proposed to issue, it was thought best to suggest that the order be temporarily postponed.

Commenting on the President's reply, Mr. Houston said that "it was no defense at all." He compared the Washington Transit case with that of the Philadelphia affair (see section on Labor and Industry), pointing out that there were no Negroes employed as platform operators on the Philadelphia streetcar and bus lines at the time of its strike and seizure by the government, and that during the government's operation of the lines, Negroes were first employed in these capacities.

He further explained:

In that case, where the chief dispute was over the proposed employment of Negro operators, the government did not feel bound to retain the existing terms of employment, but put Negroes on the job a few days after the strike started. Either Executive Orders 8802 and 9346 are laws or they are not. President Roosevelt saw them as laws and enforced them. President Truman chooses to ignore them. If the executive orders are not a part of existing law, then I think a clear declaration should be made to the country.

1946 Activities

At the beginning of 1946, President Truman, in a "fireside chat" to the nation over the radio, again urged passage of a bill creating a permanent FEPC, and blamed a "small handful" of congressmen for tying up the bill in committee. (The House Rules Committee still had refused to give the bill clearance.)

At the opening of Congress, FEPC supporters began another stiff fight for passage of the bills. On January 17, Senator Chavez moved that the FEPC bill, S101, be taken up for a vote. At once the threatened filibuster by southern Democrats was begun when opponents of the measure got the floor on a ruling by Senator W. Lee O'Daniel of Texas who was in the chair. After five days of filibustering, a petition was started through the Senate chambers calling for a vote on cloture to limit debate. Meanwhile, the filibuster was holding up important, overdue legislation requested by the President.

Thousands of letters and telegrams flooded Congress and the White House, and delegations went to Washington. On February 8, the cloture petition had the required number of signatures and the motion for cloture was entered. It was defeated on a vote of 48 to 36, eight votes short of the required two-thirds majority needed to pass the cloture motion.

The final vote crossed party lines; 22 Democrats and 25 Republicans, and Sen. LaFollette, Progressive, voted for cloture; 28 Democrats, 8 Republicans voted against it. Two Democrats and 4 Republicans were paired for the motion and one Democrat and two Republicans paired against it.

The vote tally on the cloture motion follows:

For Limiting Debate—48 Democrats—22

Barkley, Ky.
Briggs, Mo.
Chavez, N.M.
Downey, Cal.
Green, R.I.
Guffey, Pa.
Huffman, O.
Johnson, Colo.
Kilgore, W.Va.
Lucas, Ill.
Magnuson, Wash.
McMahon, Conn.
Mead, N.Y.
Mitchell, Wash.
Murdock, Utah
Murray, Mont.
Myers, Pa.
Taylor, Ida.
Thomas, Okla.
Thomas, Utah
Tunnell, Del.
Walsh, Mass.

Republicans—25

Aiken, Vt.
Austin, Vt.
Ball, Minn.
Brewster, Me.
Buck, Del.
Butler, Neb.
Capehart, Ind.
Capper, Kan.
Gordon, Ore.
Ferguson, Mich.
Hart, Conn.
Hickenlooper, Iowa
Knowland, Cal.
Langer, N.D.
Morse, Ore.
Reed, Kan.
Revercomb, W.Va.
Saltonstall, Mass.
Shipstead, Minn.
Smith, N.J.
Taft, O.
Tobey, N.H.
Wherry, Neb.
Willis, Ind.
Wilson, Ia.

Progressive—1

LaFollette, Wis.

Against Limiting Debate—36 Democrats—28

Andrews, Fla.
Bailey, N.C.
Bankhead, Ala.
Bilbo, Miss.
Byrd, Va.

Carville, Nev.
 Eastland, Miss.
 Ellender, La.
 Fulbright, Ark.
 George, Ga.
 Gerry, R.I.
 Hatch, N.M.
 Hayden, Ariz.
 Hill, Ala.
 Hoey, N.C.
 Johnston, S.C.
 Maybank, S.C.
 McCarran, Nev.
 McClellan, Ark.
 McFarland, Ariz.
 McKellar, Tenn.
 O'Daniel, Tex.
 Overton, La.
 Radcliffe, Md.
 Russell, Ga.
 Stewart, Tenn.
 Tydings, Md.
 Wheeler, Mont.

Republicans—8

Bridges, N.H.
 Bushfield, S.D.
 Gurney, S.D.
 Hawkes, N.J.
 Millikin, Col.
 Moore, Okla.
 Robertson, Wyo.
 White, Me.

Pairs

Pepper and Wagner, Democrats, for, and Connally, Democrat, against. Vandenberg and Brooks, Republicans, for, and Young, Republican, against. Stanfill and Downell, Republicans, for, and Wiley, Republican, against.

Leading the filibuster were the southern senators who had fought against FEPC legislation every step of the way: Bilbo of Mississippi, Russell of Georgia, Ellender of Louisiana, Eastland of Mississippi, Lister Hill, Alabama; Olin D. Johnston, South Carolina, and Fulbright, Ark.

Death of Temporary FEPC

The measure to create a permanent FEPC remained on the Senate calendar, but it was believed that it would not come up again for a vote in the near future. At the end of April, 1946, the House Rules Committee had not cleared the House bill and several attempts had been made to bring it to the floor on a Calendar Wednesday, but none had been successful.

Meanwhile the temporary FEPC, created by Executive Orders 8802 and

9346, had expired in April because of exhaustion of its funds, which its friends had vainly tried, through every parliamentary device, to have continued.

Over-all Report on FEPC

During the various crises in the struggle to keep FEPC alive, Negro delegations descended on Washington from time to time and Congress was bombarded with letters and telegrams by the thousands. Negroes were assisted in their fight by many progressive white organizations and individuals, including church groups, civic associations, and unions.

The National Committee for a Permanent FEPC was created in 1944, headed by Mrs. Ann Arnold Hedge-man, and busied itself raising funds and lobbying for the measure, with the aid of all other interested groups.

During the existence of the emergency FEPC, originally created in 1941, its personnel was continually changing. At the end of 1944 its members were Malcolm Ross (white), chairman, John Brophy (white), Charles Horn (white), Charles H. Houston, Boris Shiskin (white), Sara E. Southall (white), and Milton P. Webster, the latter being the only one who was on the original committee.

In its first full report, a 152-page booklet issued at the end of 1944, the committee reported that 81 percent of the cases which it had docketed involved complaints from nonwhites; Jews, with a scattering of other creeds, filed nearly 9 percent of the cases, and the remaining 10 percent were filed by persons of foreign origin, the majority being Mexican-Americans.

Private industry was charged with discrimination in 69.4 percent of the cases, federal agencies in 24.5 percent, and labor unions in 6.1 percent. The discriminatory practices faced by minority group workers were given importance in the following order: refusal to hire, unwarranted dismissal, refusal to upgrade, discriminatory

working conditions, and refusal to refer qualified workers for employment.

Cases from the industrialized East formed 32.5 percent of the FEPC docket. The Midwest and Far West together came second; the South last. Yet compliance in southern war industries did not lag notably behind the rest of the country, the report stated.

Compliance was higher in the Far West, although figures from that section reflected a large number of unsolved cases in one industry.

"If a generality is to be derived from FEPC experience," the report stated, "it is that the successful use of minority group workers in war industry has been achieved."

Of the 5803 cases actually docketed as having face value, about 64 percent

were dismissed for lack of merit, insufficient evidence, or other causes. The committee's field staff, in the 18 months, refused to docket 1442 complaints, largely for lack of committee jurisdiction. The other 36 percent of the cases which were docketed were accepted, processed, and brought to successful conclusion.

The 1723 satisfactory adjustments covered a wide range of territory and varying patterns of discrimination. The solutions were mostly accomplished by informal negotiations, the committee reported, without benefit of publicity. The more difficult cases were given public hearings, of which the committee held 12 during the 18 months. In some cases, the mere scheduling of a hearing led to negotiation and a satisfactory settlement.

STATE FEPC BILLS

At the beginning of 1945, when Negroes realized the difficulty they faced in getting an effective federal fair employment practice bill passed by the United States Congress, they began to seek state legislation for fair employment, although continuing to work for federal legislation.

Efforts were concentrated in the northern and border states, where it was felt the chances were better for such legislation. During 1945, bills seeking to eliminate discrimination in employment were introduced in nineteen state governing bodies. In six of the legislatures, measures were sponsored by Negro members.

In four states Negroes were successful in pushing these bills through the legislatures: New York, Indiana, New Jersey, and Massachusetts.

NOTE: The Massachusetts bill was passed late in May, 1946, while *The Negro Handbook* was on the press.

Indiana FEPC Law

The Indiana measure is considered the weakest one of the three. It was sponsored by Senators Charles F. Fleming, a white Democrat, and Rob-

ert Lee Brokenburr, a Negro Republican. It was adopted on March 6, one day after the New York bill was adopted; and was signed by the governor on March 10, two days before the New York bill was signed.

The Indiana anti-discrimination measure has no enforcement provisions. It provides for a commission to be set up in the Department of Labor with power to "aid in the elimination of discrimination in employment," to make studies and recommendations to the state legislature for legislation, to receive complaints of discrimination, and to do whatever it can to eliminate it.

A commissioner is to carry out the provisions of the act, with a nine-man advisory board. He is empowered to spend not more than \$15,000 a year in salaries and expenses connected with his activities. There are no penalties provided for failure to comply with the antidiscrimination policy which the measure espouses.

New Jersey FEPC Law

The New Jersey bill, introduced by Dr. James Otto Hill, Negro member

of the Assembly, and adopted in April, 1945, was stronger than the Indiana law, although generally believed to be less effective than the New York one. But reports issued several months after the commission was set up showed that much progress had been made in eliminating discrimination in employment.

The New Jersey measure provides for an advisory commission of seven, who serve without pay, and a commissioner to enforce the act, at a salary of \$7000 a year. The commission is under the State Department of Education. Failure to abide by the directives of the commissioner is a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of \$500, one year's imprisonment, or both. However, the alleged violator must first be indicted by a grand jury and given a court trial.

Affected by the measure are employers of six or more persons, labor unions, schools, and hospitals.

New York FEPC

After a stiff fight by Negroes and other minority groups for nearly two years for a fair employment practices law in New York State, the legislature passed the FEPC bill by an overwhelming vote, during the early part of March. It was signed by Governor Thomas E. Dewey on March 12, 1945.

Final debate on the measure, known as the Ives-Quinn bill, lasted six hours and fifteen minutes and was considered the longest debate on a single measure in the state during the past five years. The hearings held previous to its passage were unprecedented in the number of witnesses and interested persons attending.

In fact, pressure for the measure was so great that passage of the bill was generally predicted before it came up for debate in either House. Governor

Dewey signed the bill with 23 pens and distributed them as souvenirs. The bill was sponsored by Irving M. Ives, Republican, majority leader of the Assembly, and Elmer E. Quinn, Democrat, minority leader of the Senate, and was strictly a nonpartisan measure, with the majority members of all parties throwing their weight behind its passage.

The Ives-Quinn Law sets up a commission of five, all of whom are paid salaries of \$10,000 a year, to carry out its provisions. It is authorized to issue "cease and desist" orders when other methods of eliminating discrimination in employment fail.

Violations of the law are misdemeanors, punishable by fine of \$500, a year's imprisonment, or both. Findings of the commission are subject to review in the courts.

The law is directed against employers of six persons or more, employment agencies, and labor unions. Exempted from its provisions are employers of domestic workers, private clubs, charitable, educational, and religious organizations, and corporations not organized for profit.

The members of the commission, appointed in June, 1945, by Governor Dewey are: Henry C. Turner, lawyer and former president of the New York City Board of Education, chairman; Mrs. Leopold K. Simon, lawyer; Julian J. Reiss, industrialist; Edward W. Edwards, former secretary-treasurer of the New York State Federation of Labor, and Elmer Carter, formerly a member of the State War Council and of the Unemployment Insurance Board. They serve full time. Mr. Carter is the only Negro member.

Offices were set up and began to function on July 1, 1945. The main office is in New York City, with branch offices in Albany and Buffalo.

FEPC Bills Introduced in the States with Final Action to May 30, 1946

State	Action in Legislature
California	Killed by filibuster in last days of 1945 session.
Colorado	Introduced. No further action.
Connecticut	Passed by Senate in March, 1945, killed in House Committee.
Illinois	Passed in House, defeated in Senate.
Indiana	Adopted in March, 1945.
Kansas	Killed in House Committee.
Massachusetts	Adopted in May, 1946.
Michigan	Killed in House Committee.
Minnesota	Died in Senate Rules Committee.
New Jersey	Adopted in April, 1945.
New Mexico	Killed in House Committee.
New York	Adopted in March, 1945.
Ohio	Shelved after two hearings.
Pennsylvania	Shelved.
Rhode Island	Defeated in Senate, 10 to 8.
Texas	Killed in Committee.
Washington	Passed by House, killed in Senate Committee.
West Virginia	Killed in Committee.
Wisconsin	Introduced in March. No further action.

U.S. NEGRO CONGRESSMEN, 1869-1946

Sources: *The Negro in Congress, 1869-1901*, by Samuel Denny Smith, and other sources

41st Congress, 1869-1871:

- ✓ James Hayne Rainey, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Jefferson F. Long, Georgia.
- ✓ Hiram Rhodes Revels,¹ Mississippi.

42nd Congress, 1871-1873:

- ✓ Josiah Thomas Walls, Florida.
- ✓ Benjamin Sterling Turner, Alabama.
- ✓ James Hayne Rainey, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Robert Carlos DeLarge, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Robert Brown Elliott, So. Carolina.

43rd Congress, 1873-1875:

- ✓ Robert Brown Elliott, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Richard Harvey Cain, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Alonzo Jacob Ransier, So. Carolina.
- ✓ James Hayne Rainey, So. Carolina.
- ✓ James Thomas Rapier, Alabama.
- ✓ Josiah Thomas Walls, Florida.
- ✓ John R. Lynch, Mississippi.

44th Congress, 1875-1877:

- ✓ John R. Lynch, Mississippi.
- ✓ Blanche K. Bruce,¹ Mississippi.
- ✓ Josiah Thomas Walls, Florida.
- ✓ Jeremiah Haralson, Alabama.
- ✓ John Adams Hyman, No. Carolina.
- ✓ Charles Edmund Nash, Louisiana.
- ✓ James Hayne Rainey, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Robert Smalls, So. Carolina.

45th Congress, 1877-1879:

- ✓ Richard Harvey Cain, So. Carolina.
- ✓ James Hayne Rainey, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Robert Smalls, So. Carolina.
- ✓ Blanche K. Bruce,¹ Mississippi.

46th Congress, 1879-1881:

- ✓ Blanche K. Bruce,¹ Mississippi.

47th Congress, 1881-1883:

- ✓ Robert Smalls, So. Carolina.

48th Congress: 1883-1885:

- ✓ James E. O'Hara, No. Carolina.
- ✓ Robert Smalls, So. Carolina.

49th Congress, 1885-1887:

- ✓ Robert Smalls, So. Carolina.
- ✓ James E. O'Hara, No. Carolina.

51st Congress, 1889-1891:

- ✓ Henry Plummer Cheatham, No. Carolina.
- ✓ Thomas Ezekiel Miller, So. Carolina.
- ✓ John Mercer Langston, Virginia.

52nd Congress, 1891-1893:

- ✓ Henry P. Cheatham, No. Carolina.

53rd Congress, 1893-1895:

- ✓ George Washington Murray, So. Carolina.

54th Congress, 1895-1897:

- ✓ George W. Murray, So. Carolina.

55th Congress, 1897-1899:

✓ George H. White, No. Carolina.

56th Congress, 1899-1901:

✓ George H. White, No. Carolina.

72nd Congress, 1931-1933:

✓ Oscar DePriest, Illinois.

73rd Congress, 1933-1935:

✓ Oscar DePriest, Illinois.

74th Congress, 1935-1937:

✓ Arthur W. Mitchell,² Illinois.

75th Congress, 1937-1939:

✓ Arthur W. Mitchell, Illinois.

76th Congress, 1939-1941:

✓ Arthur W. Mitchell, Illinois.

77th Congress, 1941-1943:

✓ Arthur W. Mitchell, Illinois.

78th Congress, 1943-1945:

✓ William L. Dawson,³ Illinois.

79th Congress, 1945-1947:

✓ William L. Dawson, Illinois.

✓ Adam Clayton Powell, Jr.,⁴ New York.

¹ Served in Senate. All others served in House of Representatives.

² First Negro Congressman elected on the Democratic ticket.

³ Second Negro Congressman elected on the Democratic ticket.

⁴ Elected on three major party tickets in New York: Democrat, Republican, and American Labor Party.

NEGROES IN FOREIGN SERVICE

As of April, 1948

Source: U.S. State Department

Raphael O'Hara Lanier, American Minister, Monrovia, Liberia; appointed February 28, 1946

Clifford R. Wharton, American Consul, Ponta Delgada, Azores; appointed July 16, 1945

William C. George, Third Secretary and American Vice-Consul, Monrovia, Liberia; appointed May 28, 1945

Rupert Lloyd, Jr., Third Secretary and American Vice-Consul, Monrovia, Liberia; appointed December 31, 1945

Lillie Maie Hubbard, Clerk in the Consulate, Las Palmas, Canary Islands; appointed July 1, 1922

Herbert Moore, Clerk in the Legation, Monrovia, Liberia; appointed October 12, 1939

George W. Mitchell, Doorman, Paris, France; appointed November, 1945

Lonnie Moorehead, Guard, Tegucigalpa, Honduras; appointed July 9, 1945

Clyde Kirkendall, Guard, Ciudad Trujillo, Dominican Republic; appointed October 15, 1945

James R. Todd, Guard, Cairo, Egypt; appointed July 6, 1945

Herbert Williams, Guard, Lisbon, Portugal; appointed September 24, 1945

Henry Lotterberry, Guard, Ciudad Trujillo, Dominican Republic; appointed May 13, 1945

RECORDERS OF DEEDS FOR THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Source: Frederick S. Weaver, Second Deputy Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia

Since the Reconstruction period the office of Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia has been re-

garded as one of the most coveted political plums for Negroes.

In the District of Columbia, the seat

of the federal government, the recorder of deeds, while aligned with the federal judiciary, performs his duties under the supervision of the President of the United States and Congress. Because of this, and the further fact that he receives his appointment from the President, with Senate confirmation, the recorder for the District of Columbia enjoys a prestige above that of recorders in other jurisdictions.

Since the creation of the office of Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia in 1869, all of the posts have been held by Negroes except in three instances. (See accompanying list of D.C. Recorders.)

Frederick Douglass, the first Negro to hold the office, was appointed by President James A. Garfield (Republican) on May 17, 1881. From that date to 1916, the position had been filled by Negroes until President Woodrow Wilson (Democrat) appointed John F. Costello, white, to succeed Henry Lincoln Johnson (Republican).

Mr. Costello served until February 15, 1922, at which time President Warren G. Harding (Republican) appointed Arthur G. Froe, of West Virginia, thereby resuming the policy of appointing Negroes.

The history of the office of Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia began in 1792 when John MacKall Gant (white) was appointed "Clerk for the Registration of Land Records in the District of Columbia." The successors to Mr. Gant were also known as clerks for the registration of land records until 1863 when Congress changed the title to Register of Deeds. In that year President Lincoln appointed Nathaniel C. Towle (white) register.

The officials were known as registers of deeds until 1869, when Congress, because of the presence of other registers in the government, changed the title to recorder of deeds. Simon Wolfe was appointed the first recorder of deeds in that year. He, too, was white. He was succeeded by George Sheridan

(white) in 1878, and in 1881, Douglass succeeded him.

Complete list of D.C. Recorders of Deeds (with dates of appointment)

(Those designated by asterisks are white)

- *Simon Wolfe, May 15, 1869.
- *George A. Sheridan, May 17, 1878.
- Frederick Douglass, May 17, 1881.
- James Monroe Trotter, March 3, 1887.
- Blanche K. Bruce, February 6, 1890.
- Charles H. J. Taylor, May 23, 1894.
- Henry P. Cheatham, May 13, 1897.
- John C. Dancy, January 13, 1902.
- Henry Lincoln Johnson, March 14, 1910.
- *John F. Costello, July 13, 1916.
- Arthur G. Froe, February 15, 1922.
- Jefferson S. Coage, September 15, 1930.
- William J. Thompkins, April 20, 1934.
- Marshall Shepard, August, 1944.

Dr. William J. Thompkins, physician, former health commissioner of Kansas City, Mo., and superintendent of its City Hospital No. 2, who died in office, in August, 1944, served longer than any previous recorder, having been appointed by President Roosevelt at the beginning of his first term in 1933.

He was publicly acclaimed by the President for being responsible for the liquidation of the deficits of the office, which had totaled \$201,202 when he assumed office, and making a net profit, in six years, of \$30,590. He also modernized the system of indexing the old handwritten land records, had them recopied by typewriter; and instituted a lot and square system of indexing land records. This work was done for the most part with funds from the Work Projects Administration, an emergency agency set up by the national government to supply work during the economic depression of the 1930's.

During the administration of Dr. Thompkins, oil paintings were made of all District of Columbia recorders

of deeds. They hang on the walls of the present office building.

What was considered the most outstanding accomplishment of the late recorder's administration was his part in having a new building constructed to house the office, at a cost of \$500,000. The building was begun on September 26, 1940, and completed for use by March, 1942.

Dr. Thompkins was also instrumen-

tal in obtaining funds for the painting of seven murals depicting the contributions of Negroes to the country's progress.

The present recorder, the Rev. Marshall Shepard, was pastor of Mt. Olivet Baptist Church in Philadelphia at the time of his appointment in August, 1944, and a former member of the Pennsylvania Legislature. He is a Democrat.

NEGRO JUDGES OF RECORD

As of March 31, 1946

Bolin, Jane M., Justice, Court of Domestic Relations, New York, N.Y.
Delany, Hubert T., New York, N.Y.
Fleming, Artee, Judge, Common Pleas Court, Cleveland, O.
Green, Wendell E., Judge, Municipal Court, Chicago, Ill.
Jackson, Perry B., Judge, Municipal Court, Cleveland, O.
Jefferson, Edwin L., Judge, Municipal Court, Los Angeles, Cal.
Mollison, Irvin C., Justice, United States Customs Court, New York, N.Y.

Moore, Herman E., Judge, United States Court, Virgin Islands.
Paige, Myles A., Justice, Court of Special Sessions, New York, N.Y.
Riddick, Vernon C., Judge, Magistrates' Court, New York, N.Y.
Rivers, Francis E., Justice, City Court, New York, N.Y.
Scott, Armond W., Judge, Municipal Court, Washington, D.C.
Toney, Charles E., Justice, Municipal Court, New York, N.Y.
Watson, James A., Justice, Municipal Court, New York, N.Y.

HIGH-RANKING NEGROES IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Source: Negro Handbook Survey

Governor William H. Hastie, Washington, D.C., Governor of the Virgin Islands.
Congressman William L. Dawson, Chicago, member, United States House of Representatives.
Congressman Adam Clayton Powell, Jr., New York City, member, United States House of Representatives.
Judge Irvin C. Mollison, Judge, United States Customs Court.
Judge Herman E. Moore, Chicago, Federal Judge of the Virgin Islands.
Brigadier General Benjamin O. Davis, Assistant to Inspector General, War Department.

Rev. Marshall L. Shepard, Philadelphia, Recorder of Deeds for the District of Columbia.
Dr. R. O'Hara Lanier, Hampton, Va., United States Minister to Liberia.
Dr. Ralph Bunche, Washington, D.C., Acting Chief of the Division of Dependent Areas, United States State Department, and member, Anglo-American Caribbean Commission.
Marcus H. Ray, Chicago, Civilian Aide to the Secretary of War.
Lieutenant Colonel Theophilus M. Mann, Chicago, member, Special Clemency Board.

Colonel Chauncey Hooper, New York, member, War Department Discharge Review Board.

Captain William Ming, Chicago, member, legal staff, War Department Clemency Review Board.

Lieutenant Samuel Allen, Cleveland, member, legal staff, War Department Clemency Board.

Benjamin F. Wilson, Gary, Ind., Chief, Minority Groups Service, Bureau of Placement, War Manpower Commission.

Thomasina Johnson, Chief, Minority Groups Section, United States Employment Service.

Dr. Roscoe C. Brown, Washington, D.C., Chief, Division of Negro Health, United States Public Health Service.

Dr. Ambrose Caliver, Senior Specialist, Office of Education.

Dr. Frank S. Horne, Special Assistant, Federal Housing Administration.

Dr. Joseph R. Houchins, Specialist, Negro Statistics, Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce.

Colonel Campbell C. Johnson,

Washington, D.C., Executive Assistant to Director of Selective Service.

Dr. Cornelius King, Assistant to the Governor, Federal Credit Administration, Department of Agriculture.

Emmer Martin Lancaster, Adviser on Negro Affairs, Department of Commerce.

Corienne K. Robinson, Race Relations Adviser, Federal Housing Administration.

Edward Dudley, New York, Legal Counselor to Governor of the Virgin Islands.

Morris F. de Castro, Virgin Islands, Administrative Assistant to the Governor of the Virgin Islands.

Alvin M. Rucker, St. Louis, Acting Director, United States Employment Service, Puerto Rico.

Major Daniel E. Day, Chicago, Chief, Negro Interest Section, Press Branch, War Department, Bureau of Public Relations.

Dr. John Baldwin West, Washington, D.C., Senior Surgeon, Public Health Service, and Head of the Health Mission to Liberia.

NEGRO MEMBERS OF STATE LEGISLATURES

As of December 31, 1945

Source: Negro Handbook Survey

CALIFORNIA

Hawkins, Augustus F., Democrat-Republican, Los Angeles; elected to Assembly in 1934 and to each succeeding term to date.

COLORADO

Mann, Earl W., Republican, Denver; elected to House of Representatives in 1942 and in 1944.

ILLINOIS

Christopher C. Wimbish, Democrat, Chicago; elected to Senate in 1942 and in 1944.

Davis, Corneal A., Democrat, Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1930 and to each succeeding term to date.

Jenkins, Charles J., Republican, Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1930 and to each succeeding term to date.

Smith, Fred J., Democrat, Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1942 and in 1944.

Skyles, Charles M., Democrat, Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1944.

Welters, Edward A., Republican, Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1944.

INDIANA

Brokenburr, Robert Lee, Republican, Indianapolis; elected to Senate in 1940 and to each succeeding term to date.

Dickinson, Jesse L., Democrat, South Bend; elected to House of Representatives in 1942 and in 1944.
Grant, Wilbur H., Republican, Indianapolis; elected to House of Representatives in 1942 and 1944.
Hunter, James S., Democrat, East Chicago; elected to House of Representatives in 1940 and to each succeeding term to date.

KANSAS

Towers, William H., Republican, Kansas City; elected to House of Representatives in 1936 and to each succeeding term to date.

KENTUCKY

Anderson, Charles W., Republican, Louisville; elected to House of Representatives in 1936 and to each succeeding term to date.

NEW JERSEY

Hill, Dr. James O., Republican, Newark; elected to House of Assembly in 1942 and to each succeeding term to date.

NEW YORK

Andrews, William T., Democrat, New York City; elected to Assembly in 1934 and to each succeeding term to date.
Jack, Hulan E., Democrat, New York City; elected to Assembly in 1940 and to each succeeding term to date.
Prince, William E., Democrat, New York City; elected to Assembly in 1944.

OHIO

Ashburn, Rev. Jacob, Jr., Columbus; elected to House of Representatives in 1944.
Turpeau, Rev. David D., Republican, Cincinnati; elected to House of Representatives in 1938 and to each succeeding term to date.

PENNSYLVANIA

Brown, Homer S., Democrat, Pittsburgh; elected to House of Representatives in 1934 and to each succeeding term to date.
Hoggard, Dennie W., Democrat, Philadelphia; elected to House of Representatives in 1942 and to each succeeding term to date.
Myhan, Lee P., Democrat, Philadelphia; elected to House of Representatives in 1944.
Pettigrew, J. Thompson, Democrat, Philadelphia; elected to House of Representatives in 1944.

VERMONT

Anderson, William John, Republican, Shoreham; elected to Assembly in 1944.

WEST VIRGINIA

Jones, Fleming A., Jr., Democrat, Welch; elected to House of Representatives in 1934 and to each succeeding term to date.

WISCONSIN

Simmons, LeRoy J., Milwaukee, Democrat; elected to Assembly in 1944.

SOME NEGROES APPOINTED OR ELECTED TO HIGH STATE AND MUNICIPAL POSITIONS DURING 1944-1945

Brown, Homer S., member, Board of Education, Pittsburgh.
Brown, Sydney P., member, Board of Education, Chicago.
Bullock, Matthew W., Boston, chairman, Parole Board of Massachusetts.
Byrd, A., Sr., magistrate, Philadelphia.

Carr, Charles V. (Democrat), City Council, Cleveland.
Clayton, Eugene S. (Republican), alderman, City Council, Louisville, Ky.
Crumpler, Chester H., Assistant County Prosecutor of Mahoning County, Youngstown, O.

- Davenport, Elvin L.**, Detroit, Assistant Prosecutor of Wayne County, Mich.
- Davis, Benjamin J.** (Communist), re-elected, City Council, New York City.
- Delaney, Fred**, member, Board of Education, Atlantic City.
- Diggs, (Mrs.) Bertha J.**, Buffalo, secretary, New York State Department of Labor.
- Douglas, Stanley Moreland**, Brooklyn, N.Y., Assistant Attorney General of New York State.
- Gassaway, Harold** (Republican), re-elected, City Council, Cleveland.
- Gordon, Walter**, chairman, Adult Authority, Berkeley, Cal.
- Harris, Leroy E.**, Justice of the Peace, Lawrence, Kans.
- Hayes, George E. C.**, Board of Education, Washington, D.C.
- Houston, Norman O.**, State Athletic Commission of California.
- Jackson, Herbert Loring** (Independent), City Council, Malden, Mass.
- Johnson, Conrad A.**, New York City, member, New York Unemployment Insurance Appeal Board.
- Johnson, Wendell C.**, Cleveland, State Parole Officer.
- Jones, Philip J.**, Brooklyn, N.Y., Assistant Attorney General of New York.
- Kennedy, W. J., Jr.**, Durham, member, State Recreation Commission of North Carolina.
- Larsen, Pearl Byrd**, Superintendent of Education, Virgin Islands.
- Locker, Jesse** (Republican), City Council, Cleveland.
- Louden, John H.**, executive secretary, Governor's Council of Massachusetts.
- Lowery, Percy**, Columbus, State Parole Commissioner of Ohio.
- Luther, Stanley L.**, member, Board of Education, Atlantic City.
- McGlory, Paul L.**, Justice of the Peace, Tulsa, Okla.
- McMechen, George W. F.**, Board of Education, Baltimore.
- Moore, (Mrs.) Bertha V.**, secretary, Social Service Commission of Akron, O.
- Morning, John Frew**, member, Board of Education, Cleveland.
- Murray, (Miss) Pauli**, Sacramento, Deputy Attorney General of California.
- Parker, Augustus G.** (Republican), re-elected, City Council, Cleveland.
- Perkins, Lamar**, Assistant Attorney General of New York.
- Rasmussen, the Rev. Carl C.**, member, Board of Education, Los Angeles.
- Ray, Joseph R.**, Board of Equalization (which reviews property taxes), Louisville, Ky.
- Reid, Herbert O.**, Cambridge, law clerk, Massachusetts Supreme Court.
- Reynolds, Grant**, member, State Commission of Correction, New York.
- Robinson, Attorney C. L.**, member, City Park and Recreation Commission, Youngstown, O.
- Robinson, G. Bruce**, Boston, Assistant Corporation Counsel.
- Scott, Dr. Horace C.**, Philadelphia, Assistant Secretary of Health of Pennsylvania.
- Seymour, Frank**, alderman, Ypsilanti, Mich.
- Simmons, Charles Lebron**, Detroit, Assistant Prosecutor, Wayne County, Mich.
- Simmons, James B.** (Independent), City Council, Toledo, O.
- Stone, (Mrs.) Nellie**, member, City Library Board, Minneapolis, Minn.
- Walker, Gather**, member, Boxing Commission, Akron, O.
- Walter, Noah C. A.**, member, State Industrial Board of New York.
- Watson, Philip**, New York City, Deputy Assistant Attorney General of New York.
- Watts, Edward A.**, legal staff of State Labor Relations Board of New York.
- Williams, E. H.**, Board of Education, Ann Arbor, Mich.
- Wilson, Clarence** (Democrat), re-appointed Assistant Prosecutor of Kings County, New York.

FEDERAL CREDIT UNIONS

Source: Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation

Federal Credit Unions are co-operative thrift and loan associations supervised and insured by the federal government. Their purposes are to encourage regular savings, to make useful loans to members at reasonable rates of interest from their combined savings, to share the earnings among members exclusively, and to afford a training course in business management and the handling of money.

They were organized under the Federal Credit Union Act of 1934 and were chartered by the governor of the Farm Credit Administration, which provides for the credit need of farmers at lowest possible cost. However, by executive order of the President, dated April 27, 1942, and effective May 16, 1942, the credit unions were transferred to the control of the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.

Federal Credit Unions may be organized by any group of persons united by a common bond of occupation, association, or residence within a well-defined area. The group should have a membership of at least one hundred

persons and must have been in existence sufficiently long to insure permanency.

Some credit unions are being operated among exclusively colored groups, and a large number of colored people are members of credit unions organized among racially mixed groups. Individuals may deposit as little as 25 cents at a time in their unions for saving.

Loans have been made to members of Negro Federal Credit Unions, as well as others, for medical treatment and in cases of death; to consolidate debts, to pay off high-rate money lenders and personal loans, to make down payments on homes or land, to pay taxes, mortgages, insurance, for modernization or repair of homes and grounds, to pay rent and purchase household equipment or automobiles, to pay grocery, coal, and clothing bills, to finance a business, to renew a loan; to bridge a period of unemployment; school tuition, travel, legal advice, church obligations, and other purposes.

FEDERAL CREDIT UNIONS

Statistics on Negro Federal Credit Unions: 1935-1940

Year	Number of Active Unions	Total Number of Members in Unions	Total Loans Made to Members	Interest on Loans	Returned in Dividends	Loans to Members Outstanding	Savings (Share Balance)
1935.....	5	467	\$ 4,360	\$ 52	..	\$ 2,460	\$ 3,160
1936.....	18	1,251	16,552	427	38	7,541	10,134
1937.....	28	2,295	32,626	1,114	240	16,258	20,649
1938.....	44	3,680	63,320	2,463	622	30,239	37,810
1939.....	48	5,047	125,804	4,891	1,554	62,013	67,117
1940.....	51	6,462	202,529	8,855	3,028	102,403	108,796

BUSINESS

PURCHASING POWER

Unofficial sources, such as Negro newspaper publishers' representatives and advertising agencies, place the annual purchasing power of Negroes in the United States at approximately six billion dollars. This figure is based on an estimated one fourth of the national income.

The last government survey on the purchasing power of the Negro was made in 1935 by Eugene Kinckle Jones, then adviser on Negro affairs in the Department of Commerce. The facts and statistics given in the survey follow.

The survey was based on the fact that 5,500,000 Negroes were gainfully employed and gave an estimated purchasing power of two billion dollars. To this figure might be added the purchases made by millions of Negro employees who were occupying positions requiring them to make purchases for their employers, the report stated, thus giving them the opportunity to select the brands preferred by themselves.

The annual purchasing power of approximately 890,000 colored people in the South's seventeen largest cities has been estimated at \$308,000,000. When compared with the nation's export trade in the peak year of 1929, Negroes in this section alone spent more than the total exports by the United States to Mexico and Central America, which amounted to \$224,619,486; more than the exports to the West Indies and the Bermudas, which were \$208,969,847; and ranked along with those to Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, which were \$374,851,619.

About 27.2 percent of the urban

Negro's purchases were for food; 14.9 percent for clothing; 12.4 percent for rents; 4.7 percent for fuel and light; 1.4 percent for furniture and other household equipment; 7.5 percent for savings, principally in the form of life insurance, and the balance, 31.9 percent for miscellaneous purposes, including education, recreation, motor cars (their accessories and fuel), and radios. In 1930, radio sets were owned by 209,779 colored families.

Because the small colored retail merchant annually sells more than \$101,000,000 worth of merchandise directly to members of his race, many of the approximately 300 newspapers and periodicals published by Negroes serve as media for advertising products.

Negro farmers of the South in 1934 produced crops valued at \$664,000,000 of which \$119,000,000 represented the value of crops produced by farm owners whose implements and machinery were valued, in 1930, at \$19,784,411.

Of the estimated \$2,000,000,000 spent by the Negro race annually, approximately \$6,000,000 is expended for patent medicines; \$1,200,000 for tooth paste; \$28,000,000 for paint; and \$94,000,000 for gasoline, or more than 631,000,000 gallons. In 1930, \$101,146,043 was spent in retail establishments, of which \$9,157,646, or 9 percent, was spent in establishments which dispense chemicals or chemical products; and 50 percent of the southern Negro farmers made expenditures for fertilizer.

THE NEGRO HANDBOOK

INSURANCE COMPANIES

Sources: Mamie H. Morris, Statistician, NNIA, and Emmer Martin Lancaster,
Department of Commerce

Negro Insurance Companies

There are approximately 205 companies owned and operated by Negroes which are engaged in insurance business. Of these approximately 23 are legal reserve companies, 39 miscellaneous (assessment, life, health, accident and industrial), 91 burial organizations and 51 fraternal benefit societies.

Forty-six of these companies are members of the National Negro Insurance Association. The states in which the various companies operate include Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia and the District of Columbia.

Of the 46 member companies of the NNIA, 43 of them, reporting to the statistician at the end of 1944, reported combined totals of \$57,285,335 in admitted assets, \$630,156,539 of insurance in force, 3,695,628 policy holders, \$32,840,158 in premium income, and \$36,091,516 in total income.

Total Insurance on Negroes

According to a survey made by Asa T. Spaulding, of the North Carolina Mutual Insurance Company, as of December 31, 1942, 262 companies (white- and Negro-operated) in the United States, had 135,723,021 policies in force, amounting to \$136,723,537,858. Of these totals, approximately 9,420,289 policies were written on Negroes, amounting to \$1,685,024,434, with annual premiums totaling \$67,919,273.

1944 ANNUAL REPORTS OF INDIVIDUAL INSURANCE COMPANIES OPERATED BY NEGROES

Legal Reserve Life Insurance Companies

Companies and Their Presidents	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
* Afro-American Life Ins. Co. Jacksonville, Fla. James H. Lewis	\$2,673,283	\$1,856,796	\$2,058,569	\$2,288,731	\$25,762,756
* Atlanta Life Ins. Co. Atlanta, Ga. N. B. Herndon	9,928,873	5,885,964	5,370,195	5,704,479	101,182,383
* Central Life Ins. Co. Tampa, Fla. G. D. Rogers	621,120	424,476	648,273	698,773	14,186,765
* Domestic Life & Accident Ins. Co. . Louisville, Ky. W. L. Saunders	1,185,426	1,017,166	766,548	847,069	5,763,045
* Jackson Mutual Life Ins. Co. Chicago, Ill.	216,420	24,104	90,643	97,993
* Excelsior Life Ins. Co. Dallas, Tex. H. Strickland	644,266	380,751	447,529	463,871	7,511,543
* Golden State Mutual Ins. Co. Los Angeles, Calif. † William Nickerson	1,534,871	993,799	1,102,490	2,334,560	18,196,512
* Great Lakes Mutual Life Ins. Co. . Detroit, Mich. Charles H. Maloney	726,892	482,931	140,644	842,669	16,877,300
* Guaranty Life Ins. Co. Savannah, Ga. Walter S. Scott	592,599	376,441	375,707	412,384	16,273,292

**1944 ANNUAL REPORTS OF INDIVIDUAL INSURANCE COMPANIES
OPERATED BY NEGROES (Cont.)**

Companies and Their Presidents	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
* Mammoth Life & Accident Ins. Co. Louisville, Ky. H. E. Hall	1,207,475	599,536	556,861	1,180,385	8,020,400
Mutual Benefit Society	1,013,238	937,293	589,561	630,086	10,139,247
Baltimore, Md. H. O. Wilson					
* North Carolina Mut. Life Ins. Co.. Durham, N.C. C. C. Spaulding	11,880,685	10,880,685	5,113,222	5,886,310	89,665,841
* Pilgrim Health & Life Ins. Co. Augusta, Ga. S. W. Walker	2,698,082	1,946,995	1,795,388	1,884,284	36,702,039
* Richmond Beneficial Life Ins. Co.. Richmond, Va. † Percy Wilson	776,357	571,739	579,249	628,039	7,293,108
* Southern Aid Society of Virginia.. Richmond, Va. James T. Carter	1,518,076	851,509	708,167	779,414	9,156,687
* Southern Life Ins. Co. Baltimore, Md. Willard W. Allen	180,684	141,214	75,798	99,742	1,644,325
* Supreme Liberty Life Ins. Co. Chicago, Ill. T. K. Gibson, Sr.	4,682,165	3,668,515	2,077,730	2,381,686	83,147,630
* Union Protective Assurance Co. .. Memphis, Tenn. H. David Whalum	304,846	120,985	223,264	232,130	3,321,590
* United Mutual Benefit Assn. New York, N.Y. Dr. Charles N. Ford
* Universal Life Ins. Co. Memphis, Tenn. Dr. J. E. Walker	2,944,327	2,177,562	2,053,664	2,159,672	38,721,607
* Victory Mutual Life Ins. Co. Chicago, Ill. Dr. C. B. Powell	1,643,775	1,436,687	398,482	467,115	13,266,698
* Virginia Mutual Benefit Ins. Co. .. Richmond, Va. B. T. Bradshaw	395,027	232,362	354,262	370,381	6,891,274
* Watchtower Life Ins. Co. Houston, Tex.	221,753	167,489	130,401	143,428	2,635,785
Total	47,590,240	35,174,999	25,656,647	30,533,201	516,359,827

Assessment Legal Reserve Life Insurance Companies

Companies	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
Protective Mutual Life Ins. Assn.. Chicago, Ill.	\$46,269	\$33,933	\$46,008	\$49,673	\$1,375,848
* Unity Mutual Insurance Co. Chicago, Ill.	140,489	113,102	193,405	205,125	7,164,627
Total	186,758	147,035	239,413	254,798	8,540,475

* Members of the National Negro Insurance Association.

† Deceased.

Assessment Life Insurance Companies

Companies and Their Presidents	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
Diamond Mutual Insurance Co. ... Detroit, Mich.	\$15,751	\$11,106	\$16,548	\$16,776	\$525,718
Western Union Mutual Ins. Co. .. Detroit, Mich. Wilson Lovett	40,534	32,774	69,233	74,779	2,275,579
* Winston Mutual Life Ins. Co. Winston Salem, N.C. George W. Hill	672,089	568,337	424,536	459,382	7,337,094
Total	728,374	612,217	510,317	550,937	10,138,391

Assessment Health and Accident Insurance Companies

Companies	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
Fireside Mutual Ins. Co. Columbus, O.	\$44,218	\$6,218	\$97,135	\$103,723
National Health & Accident Ins. Co. Fort Worth, Tex.	15,105	1,457	51,176	51,176
Security Sick & Accident Ins. Co. Fort Worth, Tex.	12,538	2,514	13,504	17,520
Total	71,861	10,189	161,815	172,419

Industrial Life Insurance Companies

Companies and Their Presidents	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
Cosmopolitan Life Ins. Co. Little Rock, Ark.	\$21,465	\$324	\$12,354	\$13,149	\$669,229
Douglas Life Ins. Co. New Orleans, La. Henry E. Braden	99,612	2,628	79,146	85,365	1,647,494
Dubisson Insurance Association... Little Rock, Ark.	12,272	1,335	6,963	7,470	544,435
* Federal Life Ins. Co. Washington, D.C. Dr. George W. White	122,454	88,259	66,195	74,984	1,203,873
Gertrude Geddis Willis Burial Assn. New Orleans, La.	17,567	2,608	42,938	48,446	806,210
* Gibraltar Industrial Life Ins. Co.. Indianapolis, Ind.	4,874	1,833	52,029	52,120	2,017,639
* Good Citizens Mutual Benefit Assn., Inc. New Orleans, La. James A. Holtry	150,761	33,241	509,502	544,897	5,240,731
Keystone Aid Society Philadelphia, Pa.	11,816	8,663	18,410	20,846	225,078
* Keystone Life Ins. Co. New Orleans, La.	42,541	11,913	142,899	159,347	2,750,759
* Louisiana Industrial Life Ins. Co. New Orleans, La. Dr. Rivers Frederick	803,010	72,854	600,269	661,566	9,576,828
Magnolia Mutual Life Ins. Co. ... Tupelo, Miss.	2,140	2,140	1,300	2,275	29,277

* Members of the National Negro Insurance Association.

Industrial Life Insurance Companies (Cont.)

Companies and Their Presidents	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
* Peoples Industrial Life Ins. Co. of Louisiana New Orleans, La. James Lewis, Jr.	577,110	56,858	614,464	660,869	8,590,303
* Provident Home Industrial Mutual Life Ins. Co. Philadelphia, Pa.	278,545	200,248	362,695	370,220	5,673,767
* Safety Industrial Life Ins. & Sick Benefit Assn. New Orleans, La. Robert Vaucressen	105,674	1,958	96,196	98,256	1,563,169
St. John Berchmann's Ind. Life Ins. Co. of Louisiana..... New Orleans, La.	49,207	3,437	70,034	74,449	586,965
Security Life Ins. Co. Jackson, Miss.	32,275	32,275	49,569	50,682	774,751
* Standard Industrial Life Ins. Co. of Louisiana, Inc. New Orleans, La. W. G. Carradine	332,093	19,381	250,812	272,419	3,384,681
Supreme Industrial Life Ins. Co. .. New Orleans, La.	16,193	5,793	66,295	74,409	1,931,074
Union Mutual Association..... Philadelphia, Pa.	25,199	10,027	33,755	37,803	473,675
* Victory Industrial Life Ins. Co. .. New Orleans, La. Dr. J. E. Sims	65,373	8,870	96,549	102,525	1,314,794
Winnfield Colored Burial Assn. ... Winnfield, La.	67,203	10,453	91,490	96,823	1,661,211
Total	2,837,384	575,098	3,263,864	3,508,920	50,655,943

Mutual Aid Insurance Companies

Companies	Total Admitted Assets	Total Liabilities (exclusive of surplus and capital)	Premium Income	Total Income	Total Insurance in Force
Ethiopian Mutual Life Ins. Co. ... Houston, Tex.	\$2,364	\$2,425	\$2,435	\$1,044
Fuller Mutual Aid Society..... Austin, Tex.	868	5,460	5,460	61,707
Gibraltar Mutual Life Ins. Co. Houston, Tex.	5,585	\$1,582	6,749	6,958	290,037
Gold Bond Life Ins. Co. Galveston, Tex.	10,899	141	6,745	6,797	126,916
Jordans Mutual Aid Assn. Birmingham, Ala.	16,971	4,376	12,075	12,348	105,633
Lewis & Kelly Protective Assn. ... Marshall, Tex.	9,743	567	9,507	9,507	409,450
People's Mutual Benefit Assn. Dallas, Tex.	22,726	509	33,543	34,988
* People's Insurance Company Mobile, Ala. L. A. Hall	114,986	84,655	183,644	195,355	2,485,059
* Protective Industrial Ins. Co. Birmingham, Ala.	65,491	58,933	123,341	127,980	1,957,920
Safeguard Mutual Life Ins. Co. ... Houston, Tex.	7,573	643	17,867	18,734	431,659
Union Benefit Aid Society..... Waco, Tex.	3,670	1,119	1,148	31,250
Total	260,876	151,406	402,475	421,710	5,900,675

* Members of the National Negro Insurance Association.

Fire and Casualty Insurance Companies

Bankers Fire Insurance Co., Durham, N.C.
W. G. Pearson, president

Southern Fidelity Mutual Ins. Co., Durham, N.C.

The following insurance companies are not reported in the above table. Asterisks denote those which are members of the National Negro Insurance Association:

- *Booker T. Washington Burial Association, Birmingham, Ala.
- *Bradford's Funeral Service, Inc., Birmingham, Ala.
- *Dunbar Mutual Insurance Society, Cleveland, O.
- *Metropolitan Funeral System Association, Chicago, Ill.
- *Supreme Camp of American Woodmen, Denver, Colo.
- *Commonwealth Burial Association, Chicago, Ill.
- *Superior Life Insurance Society, Detroit, Mich.
- Cooperative Life and Hospital Insurance Co., Montgomery, Ala.
- Gibraltar Standard Life Insurance Co., Dallas, Tex.
- Wright Mutual Insurance Co., Detroit, Mich.

BANKING INSTITUTIONS

According to a business analysis of Emmer Martin Lancaster, adviser on Negro affairs to the Secretary of Commerce, increases were registered in most of the operations of the eleven Negro banks owned and operated by Negroes for the year 1943.

Resources ascended to a new total of \$15,175,983, an increase over the previous year of \$4,134,009 or 37.4 percent, the largest dollar volume and percentage gain during any of the comparative years.

The marked increase in liquid resources is the outstanding feature of their operations. Their portfolio of United States Government obligations totaled \$6,583,593 and represents 43.3

percent of their resources as compared with 31.5 percent, 16.2 percent, and 12.3 percent for the years 1942, 1941, and 1940.

The cash account amounting to \$4,926,610 has gained steadily since the 1940 total of \$2,002,685. These combined accounts, cash and government obligations, aggregating \$11,510,203, constitute 75 percent of their total resources.

Their liquid position is further accentuated by a comparative liquidity-assets ratio of all banking institutions in which the percentage of cash and government obligations to resources of Negro-owned banks slightly exceeds that of the other institutions.

COMPARATIVE LIQUIDITY-ASSETS RATIO—DECEMBER 31, 1943

	All Banking Institutions	Non-Negro Institutions	Negro-Owned Institutions
Number of institutions.....	14,621	14,610	11
Total cash and government obligations..	\$94,871,569	\$83,361,366	\$11,510,203
Total assets	128,121,978	112,945,995	15,175,983
Percent of total assets.....	74.4	73.8	75.8

Asset Declines

The decline in loans and discounts, a characteristic trend in the operations of most commercial banks, has been influenced principally by wartime restrictions on the building industry. Because of the fluctuating value of real estate and the fear of sharp market declines during the postwar period, federal fiscal agencies have urged insured institutions to liquidate their "other real estate owned."

Following this trend, Negro-owned banks have reduced their real estate holdings to a minimum of less than one percent of their aggregate resources.

Capital Accounts and Liabilities

All capital accounts (reserves, \$86,346; undivided profits, \$74,647; surplus, \$274,324; and capital, \$719,920) record excesses over 1942.

Corresponding to the ascent in resources is the rise in deposits to \$13,991,764. The upward percentage deposit trend is indicated by a 41 percent gain during 1943 as against 32 percent, 20 percent, and 16.6 percent for the years 1942, 1941, and 1940.

Their annual statements appear in the following table.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENTS OF BANKING INSTITUTIONS—DECEMBER 31, 1943

Companies and Presidents	Total Deposits	Capital	Surplus	Undivided Profits	Reserves	Other Liabilities	Total Liabilities
Citizens' & Southern Bank and Trust Co. Philadelphia, Pa. R. B. Wright, Sr.	\$1,837,481	\$125,000	\$4,000	\$2,218	\$520	\$1,769,219
Citizens' Savings Bank and Trust Co. Nashville, Tenn. H. A. Boyd	591,738	60,000	8,554	5,276	1,276	661,844
Citizens' Trust Co. Atlanta, Ga. L. D. Milton	1,445,820	69,350	19,676 *	9,913	\$2,583	1,547,242
Consolidated Bank and Trust Co. Richmond, Va. E. C. Burke	1,756,180	80,000	75,000	13,941	2,326	2,107	1,929,554
Crown Savings Bank..... Newport News, Va. W. P. Dickerson	1,617,370	47,750	22,750	5,154	19,950	1,712,974
Danville Savings Bank and Trust Co. Danville, Va. Irvin W. Taylor	479,998	32,500	50,000	7,085	2,844	4,546	576,973
Farmers' State Bank..... Boley, Okla. Forest Anderson	94,976	15,000	92	110,068
Fraternal Bank and Trust Co. Fort Worth, Tex. W. C. McDonald	716,919	15,420	2,253	9,219	292	744,102
Industrial Bank of Washington Washington, D.C. Jesse H. Mitchell	2,891,062	50,000	50,000	26,862	24,622	10,727	3,053,274
Mechanics & Farmers Bank.. Durham, N.C. C. C. Spaulding	2,447,295	210,000	46,000	4,026	23,000	2,119	2,732,440
Victory Savings Bank..... Columbia, S.C. E. A. Adams	312,925	15,000	1,000	866	1,894	6,808	338,293
Total	\$13,991,764	\$719,920	\$274,324	\$74,647	\$86,346	\$28,962	\$15,175,963

* Includes undivided profits.

RETAIL PROPRIETORSHIPS IN THE UNITED STATES: 1939¹

Source: Dr. Joseph Houchins, Chief, Negro Statistics,
Bureau of the Census, Department of Commerce

Retail sales of the 29,827 unincorporated Negro establishments in 1939 amounted to \$71,466,000, an increase of 49 percent over the corresponding total for 1935, but less than 1929 by 27.5 percent. Sales of 22,756 stores totaled \$47,968,000 in 1935 and 24,969 stores accounted for sales of \$98,602,000 in 1929.

The 29,827 Negro-owned stores in 1939 provided employment for 10,220 full-time paid employees and 3558 part-time paid employees. In addition, there were 29,116 active proprietors. Employment thus totaled 42,894, not including unpaid family members who may have worked in the store on a full- or part-time basis.

Pay roll totaled \$5,386,000 for full-time and part-time employees, not including compensation of proprietors and firm members. Of this pay roll, \$4,538,000 went to full-time employees, and \$848,000 to part-time employees. Pay roll includes wages, salaries, sales commissions, and bonuses; and the total paid in 1939 is equivalent to \$444 for each full-time employee and \$238 for each of those working part-time.

Negro-owned retail store employees (full-time and part-time) increased in number from 12,036 in 1935 to 13,778 in 1939, a gain of 14.5 percent. Total pay roll increased \$512,000, from \$4,874,000 in 1935 to \$5,386,000 in 1939. While the number of retail stores and employees increased since 1929, pay roll is still 33.1 percent less than that of 1929.

In compiling 1939 trade data, care has been exercised to maintain comparability with previous censuses. For this reason this report republishes 1935 and 1929 data, making such necessary adjustments as the exclusion of repair garages, which were classified as re-

tailers in those years but are now included in the Service Census. A comparison of United States totals for Negro-owned retail stores for the three census years follows:

Year	Negro Population	Stores	Sales
1939.....	12,808,073	29,827	\$71,466,000
1935.....	22,756	47,968,000
1929.....	11,891,143	24,969	98,602,000

Of the eleven major businesses shown in this preliminary summary, eating and drinking places accounted for the greatest number of stores, proprietors, and employees as well as the largest amount of sales and pay roll, accounting for 42.3 percent of stores, 37.1 percent of sales, 42.5 percent of proprietors, 60.9 percent of employees, and 56.5 percent of total pay roll for all Negro retail proprietorships for 1939.

Food stores are second in importance, accounting for 37 percent of the establishments, 33.6 percent of the sales, 36.4 percent of the proprietors, 15.7 percent of the employees, 14 percent of the pay roll.

These two groups account for 79.3 percent of Negro-owned stores, 70.8 percent of sales, 78.9 percent of proprietors, 76.6 percent of employees, and 70.5 percent of pay roll.

The South Atlantic division had led in stores, sales, proprietors, and employees for all of the Business Censuses. This division also had the largest pay roll for 1929 and 1935 but was second in 1939, the East North Central division being first.

Texas had the largest number of unincorporated Negro businesses in 1939, accounting for 2679, or 9 percent of all establishments. Georgia was first in 1935 and 1929. New York had the greatest amount of sales in 1939, 8.8 percent of total, followed by Texas

¹ Latest available records.

with 7.5 percent, and Illinois with 6.1 percent was third.

Negro retail establishments in Texas had more employees than any other state, with 8.3 percent of total; Illinois was second with 6.3 percent; and Georgia third with 5.8 percent.

New York accounted for \$480,000, or 8.9 percent of the total pay roll of Negro retail proprietorships, followed by Illinois with \$455,000, or 8.4 percent, and Ohio third with \$417,000, or 7.7 percent of total pay roll for the United States.

RETAIL STORES IN 15 CITIES WITH LARGEST NEGRO POPULATION: 1935

Source: Department of Commerce: Latest Available Records

City	Negro Population (1930)	Number of Retail Stores		Total Value of Sales	
		(1935)	(1929)	(1935)	(1929)
New York	327,706	960	391	\$3,805,000	\$3,322,000
Chicago	233,903	724	815	2,735,000	4,826,897
Philadelphia	219,599	729	787	3,150,000	1,630,000
Washington	132,068	279	244	1,593,000	1,495,854
Detroit	120,066	504	358	1,128,000	2,951,471
Baltimore	142,106	383	282	893,000	1,062,946
Atlanta	90,075	297	391	694,000	1,151,850
New Orleans	129,632	289	771	574,000	2,300,374
Memphis	96,550	324	379	566,000	1,552,583
Houston	63,337	252	259	565,000	1,343,588
Cleveland	71,899	184	215	550,000	1,156,859
St. Louis	93,580	250	310	521,000	1,457,427
Richmond	52,988	170	189	314,000	657,961
Birmingham	99,077	132	200	193,000	601,916
Pittsburgh	54,983	81	150	147,000	830,013

LOCAL NEGRO BUSINESS LEAGUES, CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE AND SIMILAR ORGANIZATIONS

Affiliated with the National Negro Business League

(As of the end of 1943)

ALABAMA

- Birmingham Negro Business League, A. G. Gaston, pres.; 5th Ave. & 16th St., N., Birmingham.
- Gadsden Negro Chamber of Commerce, K. J. Sullivan, pres.; Box 602, Gadsden.
- Negro Business & Prof. Men's Club, Dr. J. C. White, pres.; 529 West 16th St., Anniston.

ARKANSAS

- Negro Chamber of Commerce of Greater Little Rock, J. H. McConico, sec'y; Little Rock.

CALIFORNIA

- Los Angeles Negro Business League, C. E. McKinney, pres.; 1634 South Central Ave., Los Angeles.

FLORIDA

- Booker T. Washington State Business League, D. W. Perkins, pres.; 410 Broad St., Jacksonville.
- Jacksonville Negro Business League, George W. Powell, pres.; 410 Broad St., Jacksonville.
- Miami Negro Business League, S. G. Dames, pres.; 840 N.W. 3rd Ave., Miami.
- Gainesville Negro Business League, Charles W. Chestnut; 136 W. Boundary St., Gainesville.
- St. Petersburg Negro Business League, J. A. Whitehurst; Station A, Box 24, St. Petersburg.
- Negro Business League of Daytona Beach, J. H. M. Whitehead; 612½ S. Campbell St., Daytona Beach.

Tampa Negro Business League, N. H. Martin; Box 1092, Tampa.
Negro Business League, D. Bowser, pres.; 317 N. Sapadilla, West Palm Beach.

GEORGIA

Atlanta Negro Chamber of Commerce, T. M. Alexander, sec'y; 212 Auburn Ave., N.E., Atlanta.
Savannah Business Improvement Assn., Frank Callen, pres.; 928 Wheaton St., Savannah.
Augusta Civic League, The Rev. J. M. Sherrod; 1430 Twelfth St., Augusta.
Valdosta Negro Chamber of Commerce, J. T. Goodman, pres.; Valdosta.

ILLINOIS

Chicago Negro Chamber of Commerce, S. B. Fuller, pres.; 426 East 35th St., Chicago.
North Shore Negro Business League, D. W. Richardson, v. pres.; 1413 Twentieth St., North Chicago.

LOUISIANA

Colored Civic Association, Leon M. Wallace, pres.; 1265 Government St., Baton Rouge.
New Orleans Negro Board of Trade, Belmot Haydell; 3730 So. Claiborne Ave., New Orleans.
Shreveport Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. E. W. Duncan, pres.; 1058½ Texas Ave., Shreveport.

MARYLAND

Association for the Promotion of Negro Business, W. O. Bryson, Jr., sec'y; 521 McMechen St., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS

Greater Boston Negro Trade Association, Leon Lomax, pres.; 1027 Tremont St., Boston.

MICHIGAN

Booker T. Washington Trade Assn., Carlton W. Gaines, sec'y; 446 East Warren Ave., Detroit.

MISSISSIPPI

Jackson Negro Chamber of Commerce, O. B. Cobbins, sec'y; 248 East Ash St., Jackson.
Natchez Negro Business League, R. A. Stanton, pres.; Natchez.
Yazoo City Negro Business League, T. J. Huddleston, sec'y; Yazoo City.

MISSOURI

St. Louis Negro Business League, U. S. Falls, v. pres.; 2810 Easton Ave., St. Louis.

NEW JERSEY

Atlantic City Negro Board of Trade, Dr. L. D. Wright, sec'y; 111 North Indiana Ave., Atlantic City.

NEW YORK

Jamaica Negro Business League, G. Slayton Hicks, pres.; 107-12 New York Blvd., Jamaica.
Harlem Chamber of Commerce, Samuel Richardson, pres.; 205 West 135th St., New York.

NORTH CAROLINA

Durham Business & Professional Chain, J. J. Henderson, pres.; P.O. Box 201, Durham.
Greensboro Negro Business League, L. R. Russell, pres.; 711 East Market St., Greensboro.
Charlotte Negro Chamber of Commerce, C. A. Irwin, exec. sec'y; 528 Beattys Ford Road, Charlotte.

OHIO

Cleveland Progressive Business Alliance, Frank Petite, pres.; 7110 Cedar Ave., Cleveland.
Negro Business & Professional League, B. W. Haywood, sec'y; 817 11th St., Middletown.
Mohanning Valley Negro Business League, H. B. Gibson, pres.; 409 Belmont Ave., Youngstown.

OKLAHOMA

Boley Chamber of Commerce, Henry O. Mariott, sec'y; Box 411, Boley.
Negro Chamber of Commerce, H. McKinley Rowan; 331½ Northeast 2nd St., Oklahoma City.

Chicasha Negro Business League, Dr. W. A. J. Bullock, pres.; Chicasha.

PENNSYLVANIA

Philadelphia Negro Chamber of Commerce, R. A. Cooper, pres.; 1732 Christian St., Philadelphia.

SOUTH CAROLINA

Colored Business and Professional Men's Club, Henry S. Percival, sec'y; 302 Echols St., Greenville.

TENNESSEE

Memphis Negro Chamber of Commerce, E. F. Hayes, pres.; 699 No. Second St., Memphis.

Nashville Negro Business League, C. H. Webster, sec'y; Morris Memorial Building, Nashville.

TEXAS

Amarillo Negro Business League, Thomas J. Hughes, pres.; Box 2382, Amarillo.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, R. B. Smith, sec'y; 516 East 6th St., Austin.

Booker T. Washington Trade Assn., Dr. I. A. Carter, sec'y; 104A West 22nd St., Bryan.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Thomas, pres.; Bryan.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. L. L. Smith, pres.; P.O. Box 162, Corsicana.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, C. C. Sampson, pres.; 1222 Chipito St., Corpus Christi.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, A. A. Braswell, pres.; 814½ Good St., Dallas.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, L. Bunkley, sec'y; 712 West Morton St., Denison.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Clint Keeling; 319 North Oregon St., El Paso.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Roy D. Washington, pres.; Box 13, Ennis.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, F. A. Jackson, exec. sec'y; 928 New Orleans St., Fort Worth.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, H. J. Hendricks, manager; 823 Field St., Gainesville.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, T. W. Patrick; 415 25th St., Galveston.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, M. S. Durham; 3029 Johnson St., Greenville.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, H. R. High, sec'y; P.O. Box 578, Henderson.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, O. K. Manning, sec'y; 224 West Dallas St., Houston.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Junior, Theodore Hogrobrooks; 2209 Lorraine St., Houston.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, M. B. Davis; Box 1253, Jacksonville.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, L. B. Davis; 314 Methvin St., Longview.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Perry L. Jackson; 213 East 21st St., Lubbock.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Eugene Fannon; 711 Edith St., Lufkin.

Harrison County Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. F. E. Williams, Sr., pres.; 113½ West Houston St., Marshall.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, G. C. Stephens, pres.; 112½ West Houston St., Marshall.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, A. W. Wattlely; 514 North Chestnut St., McKinney.

Negro Citizens League, John McHenry; 811 South Oak St., Mineral Wells.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Tom Rutherford, Sr.; General Delivery, Mount Pleasant.

Literary Culture Club, Lee Payne, pres.; Box 512, Olney.

Civic Betterment League, Solomon M. Johnson, pres.; 309 John St., Orange.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Thomas C. Hannah, pres.; 729 West 9th St., Port Arthur.

West Port Arthur Negro Chamber of Commerce, L. M. Moody, pres.; 949 Texas Ave., Port Arthur.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. H. S. Patton, chairman; 110 Avenue A, Palestine.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, W. W. Franklin, sec'y; Paris.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, W. R. Bryant; 1551 East Crockett St., San Antonio.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Danley Scollion; General Delivery, Schulenburg.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, George W. Grant, Jr.; 804 Mulberry St., Sherman.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. T. E. Dixon, pres.; 402 East 2nd St., Temple.

Hopkins County Negro Chamber of Commerce, J. Andrews, sec'y; 203 East Front St., Sulphur Springs.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, A. A. Latson, pres.; Box 150, Taylor.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, E. J. Nash, pres.; 834 Laurel St., Texarkana.

Negro Business League, John J. Jones, pres.; Box 801, Texarkana.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Dr. F. E. Williams, Jr., pres.; 212 East Erwin St., Tyler.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, L. M. Moten; Box 451, Trinity.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, F. M. Johnson, Jr., sec'y; 109 Bridge St., Waco.

Southside Business Men's Association, Charles E. Smith, pres.; 905 Crawford St., Fort Worth.

VIRGINIA

Negro Business Assn., Dr. Luther P. Jackson, pres.; Virginia State College, Petersburg.

Capital Trade Assn., C. A. Jones, pres.; 10 West Leigh St., Richmond.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

Negro Chamber of Commerce, Thomas W. Parks, pres.; 207 Florida Ave., N.W.

WORLD WAR II

NEGRO PERSONNEL IN THE ARMED FORCES

Negroes served in all branches of the Army and Navy during World War II, although in some services they were limited to the proverbial handful, as the statistics show. This policy of the use of Negroes in all branches of the armed forces was developed during this war.¹

The last branch of the Army to accept and train Negroes was the Infantry Airborne service. One battalion of Negro parachute troops was trained in this service during the latter days

of the war, but it did not get into service overseas.

The proportion of Negroes in the Army ranged between eight and ten percent. It was announced by the War Department at the close of the war in Europe that Negro troops would make up ten percent of the United States Army occupation forces in Germany. They were also a representative part of the occupation forces in Japan and other areas of the Pacific.

The Army announced in May, 1946,

STATISTICS ON NEGRO PERSONNEL IN ARMED FORCES

Source: Official Government Reports and Releases

THE ARMY

	As of Feb. 29, 1944	As of Sept. 30, 1944	As of Feb. 28, 1945	As of Aug. 31, 1945	As of Jan. 1, 1946
Total	664,066	701,678	690,282	695,264	372,369
Air Corps (see breakdown below)	77,335	73,688	63,079	80,606	51,664
Infantry	44,002	49,983	52,884	48,861	19,198
Coast and Field Artillery...	50,955	36,302	27,163	19,819	6,517
Cavalry	9,043	867	770	.	.
Engineers	106,514	133,180	140,154	135,584	58,659
Women's Army Corps..... *	4,003	3,961	3,671 *
Other	376,197	408,160	406,232	320,854	191,718

COMMISSIONED OFFICERS

Total	4,979	5,804	6,548	7,768	4,743
Dental Corps	77	101	120	116	79
Medical Corps	467	463	569	576	331
Nurse Corps	219	247	343	479	318
Chaplains	205	236	260	257	143
Women's Army Corps..... * *	117	115 *

SERVING OVERSEAS

Total	284,664	411,368	497,566	475,950	216,897
Women's Army Corps..... * *	709	820	283

(There was one battalion of Airborne Troops, the 555th Parachute Infantry Battalion. It did not see service overseas.)

* No figures given in the official releases, although WACs were serving at the time.

¹ The development of policies under which Negroes were admitted to the various branches of the armed services during the earlier years of the war is treated in the 1944 issue of *The Negro Handbook*.

that Negroes would compose ten percent of the postwar or peacetime army of the country. During the war, a Negro reached the rank of brigadier general in the Army, for the first time, and approximately 34 Negroes were colonels and lieutenant colonels. The highest rank given Negroes in the Navy was that of lieutenant.

Naval policies which had been gradually liberalized during the earlier years of the preparation for defense and the war, were still further liberalized in 1944 and 1945. Negroes were commissioned as officers in the various branches of the naval service, both male and female, except the female branch of the Marines. In April, 1942, the Navy abolished its traditional policy of admitting Negroes to the mess branch only, and recruited them in general service.

The Coast Guard had commissioned two Negro officers in 1943.

Trainees from the naval training centers and schools at Great Lakes and Hampton were given ratings and put into general service on all classes of ships.

Two fighting ships were manned by predominantly Negro crews.

The Marines and the Coast Guard continued to open opportunities for Negro advancement, and the female branches of the Navy, the WAVES and the SPARS as well as the Nurse Corps, were opened to Negroes.

THE NAVY

As of September, 1945

(The numbers in thousands are estimates, according to Navy officials who issued the statistics below.)

Total	165,000
General Service	90,000
Construction Battalions (Seabees) ..	12,300 *
Stewards' Branch	75,000
Women's Naval Reserve (WAVES) ..	68

Commissioned Officers	52
Dental Officers	2
Medical Officers	4
Nurses	4
Chaplains	2
WAVES Officers	2
In Officer-training Schools	37
Overseas	123,069

THE COAST GUARD

As of September, 1945

Total Enlisted Men	3,627
Commissioned Officers on Active Duty	4
Warrant and Petty Officers	968
Women's Auxiliary (SPARS)	5

THE MARINES

As of September, 1945

Total Enlisted Men	16,944
Officers	1†
Combat Troops	11,781
Non-Combat and Mess	5,163
Overseas	12,462
Women	0

* As of July, 1944.

† As of November 10, 1945.

NEGROES SERVING OVERSEAS IN THE ARMY, BY WAR THEATERS

	As of Aug., 1945	As of Jan., 1946
Pacific Theater	206,512	130,019
China-India-Burma	23,892	10,135
Alaska Area	4,726	2,086
Africa-Middle East	585	406
Mediterranean Theater ...	43,747	6,125
Persian Gulf	80	...
Caribbean Defense	2,763	1,489
European Theater	181,620	61,085

NEGROES IN THE ARMY AIR FORCES BY BRANCHES

As of August, 1945

Total	80,606
Pilots, Technicians and Mechanics...	6,000
Pilots	563
Navigators	130
Bombardiers	189
Communications Officers	34
Weather Officers	9
Total Officers	925
Radio Operators	657
Crew Chiefs	379
Radio Technicians	88
Airplane Engine Mechanics	1,369
Propeller Technicians	56

(There were ten Air Base Security Battalions, combat troops, who guarded air bases overseas.)

THE ARMY GROUND FORCES

THE EUROPEAN THEATER OF OPERATIONS

COMBAT UNITS

Twenty-two Negro combat units of the ground forces that operated in the European Theater of Operations (ETO) in 1944 and 1945 are listed by the War Department as follows: the 333rd, 349th, 350th, 351st, 578th, 686th, 777th, 969th and 999th Field Artillery Battalions; 452nd Anti-aircraft Battalion; 761st and 784th Tank Battalions; 614th and 827th Tank Destroyer Battalions; 183rd, 184th, 1695th, 1696th, 1697th, 1698th, 1699th, and 1700th Engineer Combat Battalions.

Several of these units had outstanding records, notably the 761st Tank Battalion and the 614th Tank Destroyer Battalion; also the 333rd and 969th Field Artillery Battalions.

TANK UNITS

When the army for defense was being planned, the question arose as to whether to include Negroes in the armored forces then being trained. The late Gen. Leslie J. McNair,² chief of the Army Ground Forces, was one of those who supported the idea, and due largely to his insistence, the project was determined upon. So, early in 1941, the training of Negroes for that branch of the service was begun.

The 761st Tank Battalion had its earliest training at Camp Claiborne, La., where it was activated in April, 1942. It remained there until September, 1943, when it was moved to Camp Hood, Tex., to complete training, in the meantime having participated in maneuvers in Louisiana, April to June, 1943.

From Camp Hood, Tex., the battalion went overseas in August, 1944, landing first in England. In October, 1944, it reached the continent and was attached to Gen. George S. Patton's Third Army. At that time, it consisted of 10 white and 31 Negro officers and approximately 700 enlisted men.

It went into action November 9, being the first Negro tank outfit to go into combat.

It fought in six European countries, through Holland, Belgium, from France to Germany and Austria, and was with the farthest advanced units of the Allied Forces of the Western Front, when they stopped at Steyr, Austria, on May 6, 1945, and formed a junction with the Russians.

The 761st spearheaded the famous "Tank Force Rhine" which in three days crashed through the rugged mountain defenses of the Siegfried Line, opening a big hole through which passed the 14th Armored Division on March 24, 1945.

It had previously fought with Patton's army in the Battle of the Bulge and took part in the relief of Bastogne, and in February, 1945, fought with the Ninth Army.

During battle action the companies were commanded by Negro officers except that in the early actions two white captains served for a short while.

The battalion received commendations from four major generals and was cited by Under Secretary of War Robert L. Patterson as one of the two outstanding examples "of the success of Negro troops in combat," along with the 24th Infantry Regiment (which served in the Pacific Area).

After the close of hostilities in Europe, the 761st was retained there among the occupation forces.

Under the program, three tank battalions (the 758th, 761st and 784th) and two tank destroyer battalions (the 614th and 827th), consisting of Negro enlisted men with Negro and white officers, were authorized. All of these except the 758th served in the ETO.

The 784th Tank Battalion went overseas in late 1944 and was attached to the 35th Division of the Ninth Army in battles in Holland and Germany in

² General McNair was killed in a bombing raid over Normandy, France, in July, 1944.

January and March, 1945. It gave a good account of itself, but no detailed history of its services is available.

The 614th Tank Destroyer Battalion reached the front before Metz in November, 1944, with the 95th Division of the Seventh Army, but was transferred to the 103rd Division where it served to the end of the war.

Its most notable action took place on December 14, 1944, before Climbach, France. For heroic achievement in this action, Capt. Charles L. Thomas of Detroit received the Distinguished Service Cross, and the gunners of the third platoon of Company C received the Presidential Distinguished Unit Citation.⁸

The 827th Tank Destroyer Battalion saw action in December with the Third and Seventh Armies and was commended by Maj. Gen. F. W. Milburn, XXI Corps Commander.

FIELD ARTILLERY

The 333rd Field Artillery Battalion landed with its 155mm howitzers in Normandy on June 16, ten days after D-Day, and went into action shortly afterward as a unit of the VIII Corps. Its first mission was to support the 90th Division and take part in the battles of St. Jores, Lessay, and Hills 95 and 122 in the Forêt de Monte Castret.

The unit fought through Brittany and Northern France and was at the German border where, along with the 106th and 28th Infantry Divisions, they felt the full fury of the spearhead thrust of Von Rundstedt's attack in the Ardennes in December. Losses of men and equipment were severe. The battalion commander was captured and most of the personnel of two batteries were casualties. The few survivors were highly commended for their stubborn stand which served to delay measurably the German advance in their sector.

The 969th Field Artillery was a me-

dium howitzer unit which landed in Normandy in July, 1944. It fought through the Normandy and Northern France campaigns providing artillery backing to several divisions.

When the Ardennes breakthrough began, the 969th received orders to withdraw in the direction of Bastogne, Belgium. It reached that city in time to be pressed into service by the acting commander of the 101st Airborne Division, Brig. Gen. W. A. McCauliffe, and to earn a lasting place in United States history as one of the units making up the garrison that fought against overwhelming odds to save that strategically vital rail and road junction.

For its part in that defense from December 18 to 27, 1944, it received the Presidential Unit Citation. (The 3881st Quartermaster Truck Company received the same citation for service in the action.)

The 969th had previously won honors for its part in supporting two French divisions in the battle of Colmar in Alsace.

The 777th Field Artillery, a 4.5-inch gun unit, fought with the Ninth Army. It claimed the distinction of firing the first American artillery round across the Rhine near München-Gladbach.

Other veteran Negro artillery units that made notable records were the 999th Field Artillery Battalion, armed with 8-inch howitzers, which fought from Normandy to Germany, and the 578th, another 8-inch unit that helped to stem the German tide in the Ardennes in December and January.

SUPPORTING AND SERVICE TROOPS

During the 1944-1945 campaigns in the ETO, Negro supporting and service troops of every variety participated with uniform success and credit.

Barrage Balloons

The 320th Barrage Balloon Battalion landed in Normandy in the initial assault on D-Day, June 6, 1944. "They

⁸ This is the highest award to a military unit.

waded ashore in the early hours with their 'flying beer bottles,' in the first assault wave; dug in with the infantrymen and proceeded under fierce enemy fire to erect a protective curtain of silver barrage balloons that proved highly effective in combating strong German aircraft. Classified as an anti-aircraft organization, it was the only American unit of its type in Europe," says a War Department release.

Signal Corps

The Signal Corps used 5500 Negro troops in construction and maintenance — 7½ percent of the total Signal Corps personnel in the ETO. Much of their work was done under vicious artillery and sniper fire and severe weather conditions. No branch of the service received higher praise.

Chemical Warfare Service

The Chemical Warfare Service used 2400 Negro troops out of a total of 9500. Their chief function was to generate artificial fog for screening purposes. The official record says that "they performed excellently, often under heavy fire, winning praise from infantry commanders." In addition to the smoke generator companies there were three chemical decontamination companies.

The services of these chemical units were often vital in such screening operations as the crossing of rivers and other mass movements, yet they were prepared to retaliate in case the Germans should attempt to use poison gases.

Medical Service

Negroes in the medical service in the ETO numbered 5482 or about 2.2 percent of the whole. Negro officers were distributed as follows: Medical Officers, 51; Dental Corps, 28; Administration Corps, 17; Nurse Corps, 67. Of the nurses 65 were attached to a station hospital in England.

One reason for the relatively small percentage of Negro medical personnel, especially of officers, in the ETO,

was that the greater proportion of Negro servicemen were in small units. There was no full division of Negro soldiers in the ETO. A considerable part of the medical personnel was in ambulance companies.

Ordnance

Maj. Gen. Saylor, Chief Ordnance Officer, reported that of 6,000,000 tons of ammunition handled in the ETO between D-Day and VE-Day, 4,500,000 tons passed through the hands of Negro ordnance men, of which there were 14,323 or 11 percent of the whole. "Not only did the Negro troops 'pass the ammunition,' but on numerous occasions many of them fought the Germans," he said, "participating in patrols, and took prisoners."

Handling ammunition and guarding and caring for it was heavy and hazardous work, which General Saylor said Negro troops carried out with courage.

Corps of Engineers

Of the 259,173 Negro troops in the European Theater of Operations on May 15, 1945, a little more than one in every five was an engineer soldier, according to information released by the Office of the Chief Engineer of the ETO.

There were 54,600 Negro engineer enlisted men, 320 officers and 54 warrant officers of a total of 337,000 in the theater's Engineer Command. This total included personnel of general service regiments, dump truck companies, fire fighting units, aviation engineer battalions and separate battalions. There were 165 engineer units of all types. These units participated in all main operations by United States Forces after D-Day in June, 1944.

A general service regiment's functions are many and varied, including, according to the Manual, "general engineer work—particularly that requiring most skilled labor."

Sixty percent of this class of personnel in the ETO were Negro units,

which performed a wide variety of tasks: erecting camps, tents, and buildings; rehabilitating quarters in captured cities, including plumbing and wiring; removing debris; welding, repairing rail lines and roads, and excavating.

One Negro general service regiment, the 95th, arrived in France one month after D-Day. It had worked on the Alcan Highway and in Wales.

One important service of these units was detecting and removing job mines and booby traps, which were encountered in hundreds.

One regiment received the Meritorious Unit Service Plaque for "superior performance of exceptionally difficult tasks."

Dump truck companies worked in every area. One unit, the 582nd, landed on Omaha Beach shortly after H-Hour on D-Day. It was one of 58 such units in the ETO. Several men of the unit received Silver and Bronze Stars for bravery under fire.

Transportation Corps

It was in the transportation service that Negroes made perhaps their most impressive contribution to ultimate victory.

Of a total of 157,537 troops in the Transportation Corps on May 5, 1945, 69,914, or 44.4 percent, were in Negro units. Of these 31,763 were in Port Battalions. In the quartermaster truck field, 316 of 453 Truck Companies were Negro; 10 of 19 Quartermaster Groups were Negro and 31 of the 86 Quartermaster Battalions.

A port battalion, the 490th, came in with the second tide, about 10 A.M. on D-Day and unloaded crucial supplies for the assault troops. They worked under intense artillery fire.

Working closely with the port battalions were the Negro Amphibian Truck (DUKW) Companies. These trucks operated both in water and on land. They saved the day following the severe coastal storm of June 20-22, 1944, when all the piers on the beaches

were destroyed. They carried supplies from the ships in the Channel to and onto the beaches and sometimes inland.

These DUKW trucks continued to operate during the entire campaign because the few piers that were repaired and built were far insufficient to take care of all incoming and outgoing cargoes of material and men.

In the Motor Transport Branch, 69 percent of all truck drivers were Negroes. Some Negro trucks were landed on D-Day and others followed day after day. One company, the 370th, which was scheduled to land 55 vehicles and 115 men on the day after D-Day, managed to get 12 trucks and 24 men ashore as early as the morning of D-Day, and the 4042nd Company got 34 vehicles ashore on D-Day.

All this was accomplished while German artillery was pounding the beaches and their water approaches. Inland from the beaches, the going was no better as the truckers followed and carried supplies to the advancing armies.

As the combat armies advanced the supply lines lengthened and by August, 1944, the famous Red Ball Express was in service. On this line, trucks operated 22 hours out of 24 with only two hours reserved for maintenance and repairs. Drivers worked an average of 36 hours on the road without sleep or rest.

At its peak, the Red Ball had 67 percent Negro personnel. Between August 25 and November 13, the Red Ball's 132 companies hauled 412,000 tons from the beaches and Normandy ports to the First and Third Armies advancing across France. An average Red Ball Express route round trip was 546 miles.

When in the late months of 1944, other Channel and North Sea ports were opened, the importance of the Red Ball diminished and other, shorter supply lines were opened and operated. Among these were the White Ball, Yellow Ball, Green Diamond, Yellow Diamond, Red Lion, etc.

MEDITERRANEAN THEATER OF OPERATIONS

The chief Negro combat units of the ground forces in the Mediterranean Theater of Operations (MTO) were the units composing the 92nd Infantry Division and certain Negro service forces. (The Negro 99th Pursuit Squadron and other units of the air forces also were based in this theater. These are treated under a separate topic.)

The 92nd Division was the one Negro organization which received derogatory criticism after entering active service. It was concerning the 92nd that the so-called Gibson controversy arose (see "Gibson Controversy").

The 92nd Division was one of two full-sized all-Negro divisions that were activated during the war. The 93rd, which served in the Pacific area, was the other.

The 92nd was in a sense a re-activation of the 92nd (Buffalo) Division of World War I. It was re-activated in October of 1942 at Fort McClellan, Ala., and later moved to Fort Huachuca, Ariz., in April, 1943, where it was based until June, 1944, when it left the country for North Africa under command of Maj. Gen. Edward M. Almond who continued in command to the end of the war in Europe.

At the time of its departure for overseas, it was composed of the 365th, 370th and 371st Infantry Regiments and the 597th, 598th, 599th, and 600th Field Artillery Battalions. The 366th Infantry, which had been serving in other sectors since March, joined the division in November, 1944.

The 92nd was soon sent to Italy and served with General Truscott's Fifth Army there until the end of hostilities.

Its first major offensive action was participation in the crossing of the Arno River in September, 1944, when it captured the city of Lucca.

It was late in December of 1944

when the incident occurred which gave rise to the unfavorable criticism of the 92nd. On that occasion the Germans, in a surprise offensive, recaptured certain towns and territory that the 92nd had taken about a month previously. In the meantime, the American lines had been weakened by shifts of units and replacements with unseasoned troops, so the Germans pushed back the 92nd for as much as three miles in places.

However, within a few days, the 92nd, with other Fifth Army units, assumed the offensive and retook all the lost ground. But it was an offensive of the 92nd, begun on February 8, 1945, in the Cinqualle Canal area, which furnished grounds for the main criticism. After four days of fighting the division was forced to withdraw from the ground it had gained. During this action and withdrawal, casualties and losses were severe and equipment losses heavy.

It was during this engagement that groups were charged with "melting away," and engaging in "more or less panicky retreats."

In connection with the awarding of the Distinguished Service Medal to Maj. Gen. E. M. Almond, its commander, in September, 1945, the 92nd was praised in the citation.

Under the division's colors, the records show that 623 men died, 2293 were wounded in action, 18 were listed as "Missing in action."

Under these colors, 12,096 decorations were awarded to officers and enlisted men, including two Distinguished Service Crosses, one Distinguished Service Medal, 16 Legion of Merit Awards, 95 Silver Stars, six Soldier's Medals, 723 Bronze Stars, 1095 Purple Hearts and 7996 Combat Infantryman Badges.

THE WAR IN THE PACIFIC, THE FAR EAST AND THE FAR NORTH**Activities and Achievements**

On December 8, 1941, Pvt. Robert H. Brooks became the first member of the Armored Force, and probably the American Army, to lose his life in the war against Japan in World War II. He was killed at Fort Stotsenburg in the Philippines.

In April, 1942, Negro engineers streamed ashore from landing craft to whip out steel carpets on New Guinea for the reception of planes of a white bombardment group.

On December 1, 1942, Negro engineer soldiers were included in the first contingent of American troops to arrive at Ledo in India to construct the famed Ledo (now Stilwell) Road. Utilizing a handful of bulldozers and a fleet of dilapidated British lorries, the engineers had pushed the road fifteen miles into the Patkais by January 1, 1943.

Fifteen thousand troops, 65 percent of whom were Negroes, spent two gruelling years in its construction. It is 1044 miles long, and it is said there is a grave for every mile. Only 42 miles are in friendly territory and the troops frequently had to drop picks and shovels and use rifles.

As early as January 23, 1943, ten Negro units, ranging from engineer to chemical warfare service outfits, had been commended by General MacArthur for their "courage, spirit, and devotion to duty" in expelling the enemy from Papua, New Guinea.

The 24th Infantry Regiment was the first all-Negro combat unit to face the Japanese when it landed in the New Georgia Islands two days before the Battle of the Coral Sea, May 4-7, 1942. Its first brush with the Japanese was on the bitterly contested island of Bougainville, in April, 1944, in connection with the 93rd Division. This regiment was singled out by the Inspector General of the Army for its exceptionally meritorious conduct in

routing the enemy from Saipan in the Marianas in 1945.

In April, 1944, the 93rd Infantry Division went into action at Empress Bay with the 54th Coast Artillery, serving as field artillery, on Bougainville Island in the Solomons. By the end of that month, the 93rd had secured the Saua River and a portion of the land east of the Torokina River. The division next went to the Treasury Island group, thence to Morotai Island in the Dutch East Indies and more recently to the Philippines.

Besides the 24th Infantry and the 93rd Division, other Negro combat units served in the Pacific. Among them were: 207th Coast Artillery (AA), 369th Coast Artillery (AA), 742nd Antiaircraft Artillery, 234th Antiaircraft Artillery, and the 320th Antiaircraft Barrage Balloon Battalion and the 372nd Infantry, both in Hawaii.

Roughly 200,000 Negro soldiers were scattered throughout the Pacific and Far East, from Noumea, New Caledonia, to Calcutta, India; from Kuning, China, to Attu Island in the Aleutian chain. Substantial numbers were deployed in the Alaskan Department, the Pacific Theater, and the China-India-Burma Theater of Operations. They served in such highly technical organizations as the 101st Chemical Processing Company at Manila in the Philippines and the 689th Signal Air Warning (Radar) Company in the Sulu Archipelago.

Three months after the complete capitulation of the Germans, Negro troops, fresh from the European and Mediterranean Theaters of Operations, began arriving in the Philippines, and many more were awaiting shipping orders.

As of July, 1945, more than 550 all-Negro organizations were assigned to stations in the Middle, South, and Western Pacific areas, and in Alaska and the Aleutians.

Other combat units, besides those listed above, were: 77th and 503rd Antiaircraft Gun Battalions, 466th Antiaircraft (AW) Battalion, 726th Antiaircraft Signal Battery and 49th Coast Artillery Battalion.

The 25th Infantry and the 369th Infantry served with the 93rd Division.

The 367th Infantry of World War I fame was redesignated the 364th In-

fantry and served in Alaska and the Aleutians.

In addition to the Negro combat troops there were the usual complements of service troops in all categories: engineers, quartermasters, port companies, amphibians and many others, including chemical warfare service units.

ARMY AIR FORCES

Aviation Squadrons (Separate)

When mobilization for defense was begun by the United States in 1940, Negroes began to agitate for equal opportunities to serve in all branches of the armed forces. In October, 1940, a release was issued by the War Department and the White House stating that Negro organizations "will be established in each major branch of the service."

With this statement of policy to follow, the Air Command included in its mobilization plan for 1941 the establishment of ten Negro units of 250 men each, to be called "Aviation Squadrons (Separate)," and arranged to organize 2500 Negro soldiers into these units.

According to Judge William H. Hastie, former civilian aide to the Secretary of War, who resigned on January 5, 1943, in protest against the Army's policy of segregation and discrimination against Negroes, the Aviation Squadrons (Separate) never had a definite function, but were organized so as to make "some provision for Negro enlisted men in the Air Forces."

In a public release issued to the Negro press, Judge Hastie wrote:

These units have never had a defined function. It is the practice of the Army Command, whenever a new type of unit is authorized, to prepare in writing a careful and detailed statement describing the new unit, the things it is to do, and how it is to do them. No such guiding statement was prepared

for the Aviation Squadrons (Separate). A unit of 250 Negro soldiers was merely assigned to an air field for use in such a manner as the local commander might see fit.

Except as individual commanders on their own initiative have found some military function for particular small groups of men, the characteristic assignment of the Aviation Squadrons (Separate) has been the performance of odd jobs of common labor which arise from time to time at air fields.

By the beginning of 1943, almost every Army air field of any size included one of these units. There were no equivalent white organizations.

In October, 1940, the War Department announced that "Negroes are being given aviation training as pilots, mechanics, and as technical specialists. This training will be accelerated." Upon investigation, however, it was learned that the only aviation training given to Negroes in 1940 was training in civilian rather than in military flying, offered at five Negro colleges and one private air field, all under the supervision of the Civil Aeronautics Administration. The men thus trained had no military status during their training and the Army was not obligated to accept them after they had finished their training.

Tuskegee Air Training Facilities

In January, 1941, a Howard University student, Yancy Williams, filed

suit against the War Department, under the sponsorship of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, to compel the department to admit him to one of its air-training centers. Almost immediately after the filing of the suit, the War Department announced that it was planning to establish an air-training center at Tuskegee Institute to train a Negro squadron for pursuit flying.

Many Negroes protested the proposed establishment of a segregated unit of flyers at Tuskegee Institute and several organized groups did what they could to ward off the project. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the National Airmen's Association (colored), and others contended that a separate Negro aviation unit, trained at a segregated field, would be prevented from getting the experience obtained by white flyers who could fly in and out of many different bases.

They objected also to limiting of Negro flyers to pursuit fighting, in which one pilot navigates the plane and maneuvers the guns, on the grounds that this phase of combat duty is the most difficult.

Tuskegee officials, however, favored the plan, contending that a separate Negro flight squadron trained at a segregated air base was better than having no Negro aviators at all. They felt that the plan was a forward step and that more progress would be made in the future.⁴

The 99th Pursuit Squadron was activated and trained there, and that base later became the assembly center of the 332nd Fighter Group, into which later was merged the 99th.

The 99th Pursuit Squadron and 332nd Fighter Group

The 99th Pursuit Squadron was activated in July, 1941, and its first class of flyers was graduated in March, 1942, having been trained in the use of

single-engined, single-seater planes. The squadron later was trained in the operation of the more complex multi-engined planes, as was the 332nd.

In April, 1943, the 99th reached its full strength and was sent overseas, first operating from North Africa in the Mediterranean Theater, later from Pantelleria and Italy.

The 332nd Fighter Group was activated in March, 1943, at Selfridge Field, Mich. It was composed of three pursuit squadrons and a technical service unit, and Col. Benjamin O. Davis, who had been in command of the 99th since its activation, was recalled from Europe to take command of this group.

Encouraged by the formation of a larger and more complex flying unit, the 332nd, Negroes began to clamor for acceptance as bombardiers and navigators. In October, 1943, the preliminary training of a group of navigators was begun at Tuskegee. It was to become a part of a bomber group later to be trained. A Negro ground crew which was also to tie in with the bomber group was also put into training at Selfridge Field at about this time.

In November, 1943, the first Negro pilot-navigators completed training at Hondo Field, Tex.

In February, 1944, the 332nd Fighter Group was sent to Europe and attached to the 12th Air Force based in Italy. In July, the 99th Pursuit Squadron, which was already in action on the fronts, joined this group. The entire unit took part in activities throughout the European area, from Italy as far east as Rumania, where its work was highly commended as aiding in the destruction of oil fields there.

It established a good record and many of its men won Air Medals and the Distinguished Flying Cross. So good was its performance that on October 16, 1945, it was given the Presidential Distinguished Unit Cita-

⁴ More details on earlier agitation and progress of the air program may be found in *The Negro Handbook* for 1944.

tion, the highest unit citation awarded. During these activities it was under the command of Col. Benjamin O. Davis, except for periods when he was called to the States, at which times command was taken over by Lt. Col. George (Spanky) Roberts, and Capt. Wendell Lucas, and perhaps one or two others.

The fighter group provided escort for bombers and went on strafing and other missions. Upon its return to the States in October, 1945, a War Department release stated that the group had destroyed 111 planes in the air and 150 on the ground, and in addition was credited with destroying 57 locomotives and damaging 69 others.

Probably the greatest single achievement of the 332nd was the sinking of an enemy destroyer with machinegun fire off the Istrian Peninsula, but it was best known for its protection of the 15th Air Force bombers during concentrated attacks on oil fields in Rumania.

During the invasion of southern France the group flew cover for Allied landing forces and strafed radar installations along the coast in preparation for this major event.

Following complete destruction of the enemy's oil installations, the "Red Tails"—the name by which the group is known in air circles—concentrated on strafing communications and transport facilities in southern Germany, Austria and northern Italy.

On March 24, 1945, the group flew escort to B-17s of the 15th Air Force to Berlin, destroying three jet-propelled planes and damaging many others.

The group was overseas for 22 months.

A War Department release, issued November 12, 1945, stated:

Official records of operations of the 332nd Fighter Group in the Mediterranean Theater, from February through September, 1944, reveal that the all-Negro unit,

when compared with other AAF units in Italy, more than held its own in sorties, flying time, combat missions, and number of enemy aircraft destroyed.

The 332nd became operational with the 12th Air Force on February 12, 1944. From that date until the end of May the unit flew P-39s, but beginning the first week of June it was transferred to the 15th Air Force and started transitioning to P-47s which it flew during June.

During the period the group was operating with P-39 aircraft, the sortie rate was one third higher than that of other Aira Cobra units in this air force. . . . With regard to the loss rates per sortie, during the period of operation of the 332nd Group as a P-39 group, the losses were one third as high as those of other units; however, the figures for all P-39 units were extremely low.

While operating as a P-51 group the loss rate per sortie was approximately the same as that of other units flying the Mustang. . . . Top honors went to the P-51s commanded by Colonel Davis whose pilots destroyed 83 Nazi planes during the attack on August 30, on the Grosswardein (Rumania) airdrome, 130 miles southwest of Budapest. Five P-51s and one P-38 were lost on the two days' operations, but none of these were lost by the 332nd Group.

Bombardment Group

The first class of navigation cadets—24 in number—was graduated on February 26, 1944, at the Hondo Air Field in Texas. They were sent to the Rosewell Army Air Field to undergo bombardier training. These men were later put in the 477th Bombardment Group, activated and stationed at Godman Field, Ky. The unit was at first commanded by Col. Robert Selway, white, who was later replaced by Col. Ben-

jamin O. Davis, after many complaints had been lodged against Colonel Selway for his treatment of the men. (See "Freeman Field Case.")

When Colonel Davis took over command in June, 1945, the group was reconstituted into a composite fighter-bomber group, composed of approximately 4000 officers and enlisted men. Some of its members had seen action with the 99th Pursuit Squadron in Europe.

This group did not see service in foreign areas, and the men were sorely disappointed over not getting into battle.

Air Base Security Units

Early in the preparations for World War II Negroes were placed in training to form Air Base Security units, the first units of their kind in the history of the country. They were mobile troops whose duties were to defend and guard air bases, once established, from enemy attack. The training of the first few battalions was considered an experiment, but as the earlier group seemed to fill the bill, others were trained, approximately ten battalions in all, and all were Negroes. All commissioned officers of the units were white, but the noncommissioned officers were Negroes.

The first ABS Battalion to go overseas was the 907th. It was sent to North Africa where it participated in the campaign against the German general, Rommel, and his forces. Here

they worked with British air forces. The battalion and others later served in Pantelleria and Italy. The troops were semi-combat and in the Kasserine Pass in Africa the 907th was left behind at an air base from which the white pilots had been driven and had to do some heavy fighting.

Six of the battalions served in the European theater and four in the Pacific.

Parachute Unit

In February, 1944, the first sixteen Negroes qualified as parachute jumpers, or paratroopers, and were graduated at Fort Benning, Ga. They were sent to Camp Mackall in North Carolina to help train men for the 555th Parachute Infantry Battalion, the only Negro unit of its kind.

Although not a part of the air forces, the layman usually associated these troops with flyers. They were regarded as the highest type of fighters, due to the constant hazards to which they were exposed and to the cool courage necessary to the performance of their duties.

This battalion, commanded by Capt. James M. Porter of New York, finally reached a strength of ten officers and 140 enlisted men, all volunteers. They were not sent abroad. Among their activities in the States was the fighting of forest fires in Oregon. They were highly praised for their mastery of parachute jumping.

THE NAVY

On February 23, 1944, the Navy Department announced that two anti-submarine vessels would be manned with Negro crews, and that Negroes would be commissioned as officers to fill 22 available billets.

The vessels, which were then under construction, would be a destroyer escort (DE) and a patrol chaser (PC). The DE, to be commissioned soon, would have an initial crew of 160 Ne-

groes and 44 whites. The whites would fill billets requiring specialized training and experience not yet had by Negroes, but as soon as Negroes qualified, they would replace the whites so that the entire crew would be Negroes.

The 160 Negro seamen who were to man the DE were then under specialized training at the Destroyer Escort School at the Naval Base at Norfolk.

The PC would be initially manned by 52 Negroes and 9 whites, to be eventually manned completely by Negroes. The seamen for the PC would be trained in the Submarine Chaser School at Miami, Fla.

The DE would be of about 1300 tons, the PC smaller with an ocean-going range of 300 to 500 miles. Both ships would be equipped for offensive warfare.

Of the twenty-two officers to be commissioned, twelve would be selected from qualified enlisted men and given the rank of ensign. Ten other men, professionally qualified, would be commissioned as staff officers with rank of ensign or lieutenant (junior grade). The staff officers would comprise two each for chaplain, dental, medical, civil engineering, and supply corps, all to be appointed from civilian life. These officers were not destined particularly for service on the two vessels referred to above.

In accordance with the announced program, the DE was commissioned at Boston on March 20, 1944, and given the name *Mason*.

An accredited correspondent for a Negro weekly was assigned to the *Mason*, which went into service at once on convoy escort duty. The correspondent duly reported the comings and goings of the *Mason* in the months that followed. Among the pleasing matters reported were that there was no segregation on the ship and no racial friction.

The PC vessel, which was given the designation PC-1264, was commissioned at New York, April 18, 1944, and put into service hunting down enemy submarines.

The program regarding Negro officers was carried out, with the commissioning of the first group of ensigns and two warrant officers to rank from February 23, 1944.

The commissioning of the officers in

the professional group—chaplains, medical and dental officers, engineer officers and others—followed, and by September the full quota of ten had been commissioned.

At the close of the war with Japan, the total of Negro officers in the Navy proper had risen to more than fifty, serving mostly at various shore establishments and bases in the United States, with a few overseas.

In the meantime, the PC-1264 had had one Negro officer placed in its staff of five.

The PC-1264 with its Negro line officer and Negro crew participated in the big Navy Day celebration in New York Harbor in October, 1945. At that time, the only whites on board were four line officers.

On October 28, 1944, the Navy Department announced that at that time there were approximately 500 Negro seamen on duty on 25 large auxiliary vessels, mostly operating with the fleets in the Pacific, both as petty officers and as non-rated men. The assignments had begun August 9.

The 25 vessels included the following types: store ships, ammunition ships, cargo ships, oilers, and miscellaneous auxiliaries.

Petty officers assigned to these vessels included substantially all ratings required to operate the ship, among them coxswains, gunner's mates, quartermasters, storekeepers, carpenter's mates, yeomen, machinist's mates, radiomen, soundmen, electrician's mates, ship-fitters.

Besides graduates of Class "A" service schools, who were trained for advancement to petty officer ratings, a proportionate number of nonrated men were assigned to these vessels.

Seabees

Negroes served in the Naval Construction Battalions (Seabees)⁵ from the initiation of that branch of the

⁵ The term "Seabees" is derived from the initials of the official designation, Construction Battalions. The duties of these units correspond to those of the Engineer Corps of the Army.

service. By the end of 1943, there were upwards of 7000 Negro Seabees of whom 2000 were overseas.

On December 23, 1944, when the branch celebrated its third birthday, out of a total of 234,000, Negro Seabees numbered 12,500, serving in all ratings.

At that time, the 34th Battalion, the first to go overseas, had been returned to the states after 20 months of service abroad where the members of the battalion had distinguished themselves by building advanced naval bases on several Pacific islands while enduring strafing and bombing by the enemy aircraft and artillery. Detachment after detachment followed them to the Pacific islands.

In some instances the Seabees were called upon to assist in combat. A notable instance occurred when the 17th Special Battalion accompanied the Marines and fought side by side with them to gain a foothold on a Japanese-held island late in 1944.

The Seabees got their first Negro commissioned officer in March, 1945, in the person of a Negro naval ensign who was assigned to a battalion as an engineer officer at an advanced base in the Pacific.

MARINE CORPS

Negroes were admitted to the Marine Corps as early as June, 1942. Shortly after, Montford Point Camp, a subordinate activity of the Marine base at Camp Lejeune, N.C., was set apart for the training of Negro Marines, all of whom at that time were volunteers.

Late in 1943, the first contingent of Negro Marines, trained and fully equipped for combat, reached an advanced base in the Solomon Islands in the Pacific. They were received with some surprise but with cordiality by the white Marines already there. The highest rank among the Negro Marines was first sergeant. By mid-summer of 1944, the Negro Marines had

had a taste of battle and had suffered a few casualties.

A release, dated October 10, 1944, disclosed that eleven Negro corpsmen serving at Montford Point had reached the grade of sergeant major, the highest noncommissioned grade.

In the far Pacific, they continued to win plaudits and suffer casualties, and in December, 1944, Virginia-born Lt. Gen. Alexander A. Vandegrift, Marine Corps Commandant, commented to a group of officers: "Negro Marines are no longer on trial. They are Marines, period."

The first Negro officer in the Marine Corps was commissioned November 10, 1945. At that time, the corps was being rapidly reduced, and the officer was placed on inactive duty along with many white officers.

Previously, three Negro Marine sergeants had been under officer training at Quantico, Va., but it was reported that they "failed to complete the course."

COAST GUARD

The Coast Guard was the first branch of the naval service to commission Negroes as officers. At the beginning of 1944, there were two such officers, an ensign and a lieutenant.

An official statement, as of March 31, 1944, gave the number of officers as 968, divided as follows:

Commissioned Officers	3
Warrant Officers	2
Chief Petty Officers	45
First Class Petty Officers.....	200
Second Class Petty Officers.....	285
Third Class Petty Officers.....	433
Total	968

At that time the number of Negro enlisted men in the Coast Guard was estimated at 4000.

This statement, showing the high percentage of Negro officers, was presumably issued as an inducement in the campaign being conducted for voluntary enlistment of 1700 addi-

tional Negro youths. It was also pointed out that most of the petty officers had entered the service as steward's mates, the only branch then open for enlistment for Negroes or whites. A later statement called attention to the fact that one of the Negro officers was in command of a Coast Guard vessel.

Coast Guardsmen at times participated in actions on shore. In one notable instance, Negroes from a vessel went ashore with the first waves at Okinawa early in 1945.⁶

The Coast Guard also was active in

rescue work. A release of May 26, 1945, gives a graphic account of a rescue of distressed fishermen in Alaskan waters, in which Negroes participated.

Officers commanding these guardians of America's shores and her vessels on the seas testify that Negroes have never tarnished the Coast Guard's motto, *Semper Paratus*—"Always ready."

NOTE: WAVES, SPARS and nurses are treated in the section "Women in the Armed Services."

OFFICERS ABOVE THE RANK OF MAJOR

The first Negro to be appointed to the rank of general in the United States Army was Benjamin O. Davis, Sr., who was promoted to the rank of brigadier general in the latter part of 1940. He joined the army in 1898 and rose from the ranks. He reached retirement age shortly after his promotion to general but was retained in the service and was attached to the Inspector General's Office in Washington.

Prior to World War II, only about

five Negroes had served as colonels or lieutenant colonels in the army, but during World War II about 34 reached those ranks.

Those who ranked as colonels and lieutenant colonels prior to World War II, all of whom served in this capacity in World War I, were Col. Charles Young,⁷ Lt. Col. Benjamin O. Davis, Sr., Col. Frank Dennison, Lt. Col. John E. Green, Lt. Col. Otis B. Duncan, and Col. Lewis Carter, a chaplain.

COLONELS AND LIEUTENANT COLONELS IN WORLD WAR II

Col. Benjamin O. Davis, Jr.,⁷ 332nd Fighter Group and 477th Bombardment Group, Air Forces.

Col. Anderson F. Pitts, 184th Field Artillery; attached to Inspector General's Office at close of the war.

Col. Midian O. Bousfield, Medical Corps, Station Hospital, Fort Huachuca, Ariz.

Col. Howard D. Queen, 366th Infantry; appointed to Veterans' Administration at close of the war.

Col. Chauncey M. Hooper, 369th Coast Artillery; appointed member of War Department Discharge Review Board in 1946.

Col. Edward O. Gourdin, 372nd Infantry.

Col. West A. Hamilton, Commander of R.O.T.C. at Prairie View College, Tex.

Col. Campbell C. Johnson, Assistant to the Director of Selective Service in Washington. (Did not see service in the field.)

Col. Oscar C. Randall, 366th Infantry. Col. Wilmer Lucas, 369th Coast Artillery.

Lt. Col. Theophilus Mann, 795th Tank Destroyer Battalion; appointed member of War Department Special Clemency Board in 1946.

Lt. Col. George Roberts, 99th Pursuit Squadron, Air Corps.

Lt. Col. Marcus F. Ray, 184th Field Artillery; appointed Civilian Aide to the Secretary of War in 1945.

⁶ The cutter *Campbell* incident, in which an all-Negro gun crew participated in sinking a German submarine, in May, 1943, is narrated in the 1944 issue of *The Negro Handbook*.

⁷ West Point Military Academy Graduate.

Lt. Col. Nelson Brooks, 477th Bombardment Group, Air Corps.
 Lt. Col. Frank M. Snowden, Quartermaster Corps.
 Lt. Col. Herbert A. Barrow, 372nd Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Raymond E. Contee, 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Wendell Derricks, 184th Field Artillery.
 Lt. Col. Alonzo G. Ferguson, 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Benote H. Lee, 184th Field Artillery.
 Lt. Col. Harry F. Lofton, 372nd Infantry.
 Lt. Col. D. Maurice Moses, 369th Coast Artillery.
 Lt. Col. George McDonald, Medical Corps, Army Air Base, Tuskegee.

Lt. Col. James A. Nicholas, 372nd Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Robert L. Pollard, 372nd Infantry.
 Lt. Col. George L. Eggleston, 372nd Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Vernon Riddick, 369th Coast Artillery.
 Lt. Col. Ernest R. Welch, 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. John B. West, Medical Corps.
 Lt. Col. Robert Bennet, Medical Corps.
 Lt. Col. George P. Lawrence, 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. James H. Robinson, 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. William H. Bowers, Jr., 366th Infantry.
 Lt. Col. Hyman Y. Chase, 366th Infantry.

WEST POINT MILITARY ACADEMY

Source: War Department Report as of July 14, 1945

During the period July 1, 1870, to July 1, 1945, twenty-eight Negroes were admitted to the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York, where officers are trained for the United States Army.

Ten of those certified for entrance have graduated with commissions as second lieutenants in the various arms and services, one resigned, thirteen were separated before graduation because of deficiencies, and four are presently pursuing the course of study.

A list of those admitted follows on page 341.

Graduates now on active duty, with their assignments: Colonel Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., commanding officer, 477th Composite Group, Godman

Field, Ky.; Major James D. Fowler, 372nd Infantry Regiment, Central Pacific Area; Major Clarence M. Davenport, 742nd Antiaircraft Artillery Gun Battalion, Netherlands East Indies; Second Lieutenant Henry M. Francis, Third Infantry Training Battalion, Fort McClelland, Ala.; Second Lieutenant Ernest J. Davis, Jr., Fighter Transition School, Tuskegee Army Air Field, Ala.; and Second Lieutenant Mark E. Rivers, Jr., Field Artillery School, Fort Sill, Okla.

Captain Robert B. Tresville, Jr., squadron commander of the 332nd Fighter Group in Italy, has been declared dead after being missing in action in the Mediterranean Theater of Operations.

ANNAPOLIS NAVAL ACADEMY

After 1875 no Negroes were in attendance at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., where officers are trained for the United States Navy, until 1936 when James Lee Johnson of Washington and Chicago entered. Following Johnson's ad-

mittance, George J. Trivers was admitted.

Altogether six Negroes have attended the academy, but none has graduated from it. Both Johnson and Trivers resigned, the former for deficient grades in deportment and English, and the

NEGROES ADMITTED TO WEST POINT MILITARY ACADEMY

Name	Appointed from	Date Admitted	Date Separated
James W. Smith	South Carolina	July 1, 1870	June 26, 1874
Henry A. Napier	Tennessee	July 1, 1871	June 30, 1872
Thomas V. R. Gibbs	Florida	July 1, 1872	Jan. 11, 1873
*Henry O. Flipper	Georgia	July 1, 1873	June 15, 1877
John W. Williams	Virginia	July 1, 1873	Jan. 19, 1874
Johnson C. Whittaker	South Carolina	Sept. 1, 1876	Mar. 23, 1882
Charles A. Winnie	New York	Sept. 1, 1877	Jan. 18, 1878
*John H. Alexander	Ohio	July 1, 1883	June 12, 1887
*Charles Young	Ohio	June 15, 1884	Aug. 31, 1889
William T. Andrews	South Carolina	June 14, 1885	Jan. 21, 1886
William A. Hare	Ohio	June 14, 1885	Jan. 21, 1886
Henry A. Holloway	South Carolina	Sept. 1, 1886	Jan. 26, 1887
John B. Alexander	Ohio	June 14, 1918	Dec. 26, 1918
Alonzo S. Parham	Illinois	July 1, 1929	Jan. 14, 1930
*Benjamin O. Davis, Jr.	Illinois	July 1, 1932	June 12, 1936
Felix J. Kirkpatrick, Jr.	Illinois	July 1, 1935	Dec. 7, 1935
*James D. Fowler	Illinois	July 1, 1937	June 11, 1941
*Clarence M. Davenport	Michigan	July 1, 1939	Jan. 19, 1943
*Robert B. Tresville, Jr.	Illinois	July 1, 1939	Jan. 19, 1943
*Henry M. Francis	Illinois	July 1, 1941	June 6, 1944
*Ernest J. Davis, Jr.	Illinois	July 20, 1942	June 5, 1945
*Mark E. Rivers, Jr.	New York	July 15, 1942	June 5, 1945
Leven C. Weiss	Michigan	July 1, 1942	Jan. 12, 1943
†Andrew A. McCoy, Jr.	Pennsylvania	July 1, 1943
†Charles L. Smith	Missouri	July 1, 1944
†Frank A. Titus	Illinois	July 1, 1944	Aug. 14, 1944
†Edward B. Howard	Illinois	July 2, 1945
†Edward R. Wills	Michigan	July 2, 1945

* Graduated. † Resigned. ‡ Presently in Attendance.

latter stated that he resigned because of ill health.

Following announcement of Johnson's resignation, and reports of the treatment accorded him at the academy, Negroes protested his resignation, believing that he had been unduly discriminated against both in the hazing he had suffered at the hands of his fellow students and in his grades. Following his resignation, he served in

the 99th Pursuit Squadron during World War II and made a good record.

The next Negro to enter the academy was Wesley A. Brown of New York, who was admitted in June, 1945, following his nomination by Representative Adam Clayton Powell, Jr., of New York and was still in attendance at the end of October, 1946.

The list of Negroes who have attended the academy follows:

NEGROES ADMITTED TO U.S. NAVAL ACADEMY AT ANNAPOLIS, MD.

Name	State	Admitted	Separated—Cause
John Henry Conyers	South Carolina	Sept. 21, 1872	Nov. 11, 1872—Resigned
Alonzo C. McClellan	South Carolina	Sept. 22, 1873	Mar. 16, 1874—Resigned
Henry E. Baker, Jr.	Mississippi	Sept. 27, 1874	Nov. 4, 1875—Dismissed
James Lee Johnson	Illinois	June 15, 1936	Feb. 18, 1937—Resigned
George J. Trivers	Illinois	June 16, 1937	July 8, 1937—Resigned
Wesley A. Brown	New York	June 30, 1945	Still in attendance

WOMEN IN THE ARMED SERVICES

WOMEN'S ARMY CORPS

The beginning of 1944 found Negro members of the Women's Army Corps

serving at ten or more Army posts in the United States, and being trained at two centers, Fort Des Moines, Ia.,

and Fort Devens, Mass. There were also some WACs on duty at the headquarters in Washington. Up to that time, none had been sent overseas although many white groups had been sent and were giving great satisfaction.

Negro WACs, like their fellow white Army women, were performing a great variety of services—clerical, postal, chauffeurs, and technicians of many sorts.

Their eighteen months of history up to that time had been marked by many vicissitudes, but after a series of conferences in mid-1943, between representatives of the National Council of Negro Women and the commander of the corps, Col. Oveta Hobby (white), reasonably satisfactory working conditions were agreed upon and put into effect.⁸

The goals set for the enrollment in the corps in 1943 totaled 150,000, with about one tenth of these to be Negroes. These goals were far from being met. On January 1, 1944, the official statement showed that there were only 62,859 officers and enlisted women in all, of which "less than" ten percent (the quota) were Negroes.

The proportion of Negro women would undoubtedly have been larger had there been adequate recruiting efforts and no quota set.

Although there were many individual Negro women with college or even postgraduate education in the corps, it was estimated that more than two thirds of them were in military grades four and five (the lower ones) in the literacy tests, whereas only a little more than one fourth of the whites were so classified.

That condition may have accounted in part for the complaints of lack of training for a proportionate number of Negro WACs in the more specialized technical and professional courses. It was said that most of them were being

trained in motor equipment, cooking or administration work.

No Negro officers were used in the recruiting service until late in 1943, when a few were so detailed. The authorities explained that it was not done earlier because the officers were needed for instructors and for commands for "there would have been complaints" had whites been assigned to these duties.

Of the estimated 155 kinds of work being performed by WACs, in the service, an official estimate placed 75 percent of the Negroes in 25 percent of these jobs.

At the various officer training centers, even at Fort Oglethorpe, Ga., Negroes were completely integrated with others. This conformed to the general practice at training posts for males.

There remained, however, the major complaint that no Negro WACs were sent overseas. Col. Hobby estimated that 3000 whites were on duty in the European theater, including Africa, in February, 1944. Requests and agitation for overseas service were renewed early in 1944, and the Negro press gave the agitation support.

So strong was the desire of Negro women to go overseas that it was reported that prospects for overseas service were used as a lure in some places to secure recruits. Army officials, it was said, excused this procedure as "routine practice," at the same time admitting that there were no plans to use any Negro WACs abroad.

At a press conference with Secretary of War Stimson in January, 1944, Harry McAlpin, representing the National Negro Publishers, brought up the matter.

Quoting a previous War Department statement that "WAC units are shipped overseas in answer to specific requests from theater commanders and no Negro WAC units have been requested," he asked whether the policy of the

⁸ There were ten recommendations submitted and discussed. The actions agreed upon and a history of the corps up to that time is given in the 1944 *Negro Handbook*.

War Department delegated to a theater commander the right to designate the race or color of units that may be sent to him.

Mr. Stimson answered to the effect that recommendations of commanders were usually followed, though final decisions are made by the War Department. This, of course, left the responsibility on the Department.

On the home front, reports were being received concerning the services of Negro WACs. A typical statement by the post commander, Col. William H. Hobson, at Fort Benning, Ga., was quoted by a correspondent for the Afro-American Newspapers. He said:

"The devotion to duty of colored members of the Women's Army Corps at Fort Benning has won the admiration of all soldiers at this vast training center. We are proud of the WACs. They are fine soldiers."

There was, in general, segregation for the enlisted personnel of the same pattern as that used for male soldiers, and from the South, especially, there was complaint of ugly conditions.

Even from the main training center in Des Moines came complaints that Negro WACs were not given proper consideration in the matter of promotions and upgrading and that those who resented discrimination were persecuted.

It was reported in the Negro press in late November that a group of 208 WAC recruits in New York City, known locally as the Jonathan Wainwright Company, had been led to believe by military personnel that this company "would establish a precedent" in that it would be the first WAC division to have white and Negro women train and live together as a unit.

However, when the group arrived at Fort Des Moines, the Wainwrights were split in accordance with the usual pattern, the 12 Negro recruits being sent to a Negro company. So great was the disappointment and resentment that it was reported that some of the

Negro women began at once to "get into trouble" so they would be sent back home.

The public relations director at the WAC headquarters in New York disclaimed any responsibility for deception, saying that any changes of the sort complained of that were made in the plans were the responsibility of the authorities in Des Moines.

But the chief grievance continued to be, as it had been for over two years, the refusal or curtailment of opportunity for full service, especially in combat areas.

In late November, 1944, when Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt interceded in behalf of the WACs who were pleading for overseas service, she was given the same excuse, or explanation, that Secretary Stimson had voiced in January—that overseas commanders had not asked for them.

However, she was informed that Colonel Hobby "shares her feeling" and that "consideration of the situation was recently requested and we hope favorable action will be taken by theater commanders." Two months later, the War Department announced that a Women's Army Corps unit composed of Negroes was being formed for overseas duty and would be sent to a foreign area upon completion of its training.

On February 12, 1945, this unit, a full battalion, arrived in England. It was composed of 715 enlisted women and 23 officers, all Negroes. They were formed into a postal unit in England which handled the Army postal directory service for the entire European Theater of Operations. There it was still serving at the close of the year.

A detachment of these WACs was sent to Rouen, France, where they formed a postal unit.

The WACs had two Negro officers above the rank of captain: Maj. Harriet M. West, and Maj. Charity E. Adams.

WAVES AND SPARS⁹

Women in the Naval Reserve

The announcement in late October, 1944, that Negro women would be admitted into the Women's Reserve, United States Naval Reserve (WAVES), ended a two-year effort to induce the Navy to follow the example of the Army, which had been accepting Negro women in its women's branch since July, 1942.

The progress of the effort during 1944 can be gauged by a few typical headlines from the Negro newspapers:

March 18—Navy Promises Action on WAVES

May 13—Act to Halt Navy Ban on Race Women for Service

June 6—Tells Why No Negro WAVES

June 10—Drive to Crack Bias in WAVES and SPARS

August 19—Navy Considers End of WAVE Ban

August 19—Navy Studies Use of Negro WAVES

After the announcement, the headlines took a different form—some examples:

October 27—Two-year Fight Won At Last

October 28—WAVES, SPARS, to Admit Negroes

October 28—President Approves Plan Drawn by Navy: Coast Guard Follows

The announcement of the lifting of the bars by the Navy Department was carried in a release from the Office of War Information dated October 19, which said:

The President today approved a plan submitted by the Navy Department providing for the acceptance of Negro women in the Women's Reserve of the Navy. The plan calls for the immediate com-

missioning of a limited number of especially qualified Negro women to serve as administrative officers. They will assist in the subsequent planning and supervision of the program for Negro women which will be administered as an integral part of the Women's Reserve.

Enlistment of Negro women will be undertaken as soon as these plans have been completed and it is presently indicated that the first Negro recruits will enter training shortly after January 1.

Officer candidates and enlisted women will be trained at existing schools for the training of WAVES. The number to be enlisted will be determined by the needs of the service.

Especially pleasing to Negroes was the prospect of the absence or at least the lessening of segregation. True, the announcement referred only to training, but it was hoped that the integration would be carried further.

The day following the announcement concerning the WAVES, the Coast Guard released a brief statement to the effect that it would "follow the general policy of the Navy in accepting Negro women in the Women's Reserve."

On November 13, 1944, the first Negro women were sworn into the WAVES. There were three—one in Boston and two in New York City. The two in New York, Miss Harriett Ida Pickens and Miss Frances Eliza Wills, were officer candidates, and were to report to Smith College, Northampton, Mass., for training November 15.

The Negro papers broadcast the news, and urged young women to take advantage of what appeared to be the favorable conditions. However, applications appeared to be slow in coming in.

⁹ WAVES—Derived from initials of the term, Women Appointed for Voluntary Emergency Service.

SPARS—Derived from the motto of the Coast Guard, *Semper Paratus*, meaning "Always Ready." Earlier information may be found in the 1944 *Negro Handbook*.

In the meantime, the officer candidates, despite the handicap of having entered the class when one third of the eight-week course was over, graduated with the class on December 21. Miss Pickens was one of five honor graduates in the class of more than two hundred and was commissioned lieutenant (J.G.). Miss Wills was commissioned an ensign.

By January 1, 1945, there were thirty-odd Negro women in training at Hunter College in the Bronx, N.Y. They were experiencing no segregation or discrimination of any sort. Their "boot" training was to last six weeks.

Women in the Coast Guard

Enlistments in the SPARS were slower; one reason perhaps was the fact that the Coast Guard at that time was recruiting only secretaries and bookkeepers. The public relations officer at New York stated, the week of March 17, 1945, that only two Negro women had applied up to that time in New York City.

A release from the Coast Guard dated March 29, 1945, stated that two recruits—one from Los Angeles and one from Columbus, O., were taking "boot" training at the Manhattan Beach, N.Y., Coast Guard Training Station.

A correspondent for a Negro newspaper stated in the issue of July 7, 1945, that at that time there were five under training at Manhattan Beach, and one stationed there who had graduated in June. They, too, attested to complete absence of any discrimination or segregation.

The Negro women who had entered the Naval service had evidently comported themselves well, and given satisfactory service for, on July 23, 1945, the Navy released an urgent appeal to "qualified Negro women to join with the two Negro commissioned officers and the 54 enlisted WAVES in playing an active part in a speedy victory."

A Navy release issued a few days

later (August 1) concerning the celebration of the third anniversary of the establishment of the WAVES said that besides the two officers and 54 enlisted women, there were "a few Negro women" among the 8000 women then in training or awaiting call to duty. The same release gave the total number of WAVES as 8000 officers and 70,000 enlisted.

There were no Negro females in the United States Marine Corps at any time.

NURSES

Nurses in the Army

At the beginning of 1944, there were about two hundred Negro female nurses serving in the Army. There were none in the Navy.

Negro nurses began service in the Army in April, 1941, at which time the country was well on the way in preparing for possible defense. They were admitted only after considerable reluctance. [Female nurses enter the military services as commissioned officers.]

During the early months of 1944, there was a decline in the acceptance of Negroes in the Army Nurse Corps, although there was a vigorous campaign in progress to recruit nurses for the service. Official statements said that 3000 nurses were needed before April and 30,000 during the year.

Mrs. Mabel Staupers, secretary of the National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses, stated that there was a large number of Negro nurses available—she had estimated that there were 800 in New York City alone; besides, there were scores being trained under the Cadet Nurses' program initiated in 1943.

At a press conference in March, 1944, Major General Kirk, Surgeon General of the Army, had said in answer to questions that more Negro nurses would be accepted "if we need them." He stated further that, "up to now, we have tried to use Negro nurses only where we have Negro

troops. It has not been our policy to mix colored and white nurses throughout the Army."

Under that policy, he stated, Negro nurses had been assigned to seven installations in the United States.

In November, 1943, fifteen nurses, as part of an all-Negro hospital group, had been sent to Australia and presumably were still on duty in the Pacific area in March, 1944. A group of thirty, which had been on duty in Liberia, had been recalled in December, 1943, but no reason for their recall was given. Of the 202 on duty in the United States in March, 1944, 71 were at Fort Huachuca.

By mid-summer, the recruiting program for nurses, aimed particularly at whites, had lagged, despite urgent appeals. The Army had invaded France, and nurses were badly needed; the cadet training course had a long while to run before it would supply any additions, so, on July 12, 1944, it was announced that the Army had abandoned its policy of accepting Negro nurses under a quota.

Whether or not the changed policy would change the practice of confining the services of Negro nurses to Negro troops was not made clear, although in some hospitals it was said that such restrictions were not practiced.

The new policy of unrestricted recruiting brought responses. Many applications were made, yet by September 30 the number of Negro nurses had risen to only 247, a gain of 45 in six months.

In the meantime a contingent of 63 had been sent to Great Britain (where they went on duty September 16), and many promotions had been recorded, from second lieutenant, the rank given on entrance, to first lieutenant, and three had been commissioned captains.

Toward the end of the year the situation had become so urgent that a bill to draft nurses was before Congress, introduced by Representative Frances Bolton. The matter of full and unrestricted service for Negro nurses was

brought up in January, 1945. It was pointed out that although there were 9000 Negro registered nurses in the country, the Army had taken only 247.

By May 1 the number in the Army had risen to 440, and on July 31 the number was 512—9 captains, 115 first lieutenants, and 388 second lieutenants. This seems to have been the high mark, for on August 31, 1945, the number had dropped to 479.

Although Surgeon General Kirk was quoted as having recently told a New York audience that Negro nurses would attend only Negro troops, it was reported in the Negro press that Negro nurses were attending white soldiers at Camp Claiborne, La., Fort Bragg, N.C., and at a station hospital in New Orleans, and a group had been recently sent from Fort Huachuca to California where they would attend white troops.

Later reports from England told of Negro nurses attending white American servicemen in a hospital, and several Negro newspapers published pictures to prove the report.

Nurses in the Navy

By January, 1945, the need for nurses was so great that the drive to get them was intensified, and it became known that the Navy would accept qualified Negro applicants.

The information came through Rear Admiral William C. Agnew, chief of the Navy's Bureau of Medicine and Surgery. While making a plea at a recruiting meeting in New York on January 20, he was questioned on the matter of accepting Negro nurses and replied that they would be accepted.

Concerning the matter of a racial quota, Admiral Agnew said that the Navy had none. But he stated: "We require only a certain number. You understand that number is not unlimited. The number we can take has not yet been determined, but there is no quota."

Meanwhile, a call had gone out from Basil O'Connor, the head of the Red

Cross, for 10,000 Army nurses and 4000 Navy nurses to meet immediate needs. In illustrating the urgency, Mr. O'Connor had said that "eleven Army hospital units about to go overseas are being sent without any nurses."

There had been so many reports of unpleasant conditions in Army hospitals that applications from Negro nurses for naval service were not coming in rapidly. At the end of February, 1945, it was stated that twelve applications were before the Navy Department in Washington.

On March 8, 1945, the first Negro nurse was sworn into the Navy Nurse Corps in New York City. She was Miss Phyllis Mae Dailey, a graduate of the Lincoln Hospital School for Nurses in that city, and she was then a nurse in the hospital. Three others were commissioned later, and there were no more reported entering the Navy.

(See data on Cadet Nurse Corps in section on "Health and Vital Statistics.")

SOME MUTINIES, RIOTS, AND OTHER DISTURBANCES¹⁰

Introduction

As in the earlier years of the war, there were in the last two years a number of disturbances in which Negro servicemen and servicewomen were involved aggressively.

These disturbances grew out of what the participants regarded as unfair or prejudicial treatment which they sought to remedy or to resist in one form or another.

Many of the disturbances might be called in dictionary terms "breaches of tranquillity"; a few, however, were of such proportions as to be referred to as mutinies or riots.

A considerable number of cases were based on charges of disobedience or insubordination, which, although the accused probably were not aware of it, are classed among serious offenses, in many instances tantamount to mutiny.

While some of the riots brought death or injury to participants and to others, none of the mutinies were accompanied by violence.

A few cases in the various categories follow.

The Port Chicago, Cal. Mutiny

On July 17, 1944, two ships that were being loaded with ammunition exploded at the docks at Port Chicago, a small town on San Francisco Bay

about 35 miles northeast of San Francisco.

Over 300 persons were killed and several hundred injured. Of those killed, about 250 were Negro seamen who were engaged in loading the ships. Others killed were nine white officers in charge of the loaders, seventy members of the mixed crews of the two ships, fifteen Coast Guardsmen on vessels nearby, and several civilians.

The injured were mostly Negro seamen loaders who were at that time (10:30 P.M.) in their barracks a mile from the docks.

On August 9, the survivors, who had been scattered about in various camps, were assembled at Vallejo, a few miles from Port Chicago, with the view of resuming the loading. However, the men expressed strong reluctance. Various reasons were given, but the principal reason was fear of another disaster.

After three days of persuasion and urging, the commandant of the Naval district was called in, but his efforts, too, were largely unavailing. Of the 400 men, 258 were unable to overcome their fears and they were put in virtual confinement on a barge at the docks.

Several days were consumed in persuading and interviewing the men by the post chaplain and others with the

¹⁰ Earlier incidents may be found in *The Negro Handbook*, 1944.

result that all but 44 of the 258 expressed willingness to resume the loading.

These 44, plus 6 others who balked after a few days of work, were formally charged with mutiny.

On September 14, the "mutineers" were put on trial before a naval court-martial. The trial lasted six weeks, ending on October 24 with a verdict of guilty. Three weeks later they were given sentences ranging from 8 to 15 years at hard labor, and dishonorable discharges.

The initial sentence in each case was 15 years, but Rear Admiral Carleton H. Wright, commandant of the district, ruled that forty of the men were entitled, because of mitigating circumstances, to reductions of sentences. Because of youth, previous clear record or short period of service, terms were reduced to eight years for five men, ten for eleven men and twelve for twenty-four men. (Court-martial sentences are subject to further review by the Judge Advocate of the Navy, the Bureau of Personnel and the Secretary of the Navy.)

Sections of the Negro press, following their investigations, took exception to the mutiny charges. They contended that officers of two of the three divisions to which the men belonged did not give direct and explicit orders to go to work; that in the one division which received such orders there were no recalcitrants.

Thurgood Marshall, an attorney representing the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, who was an observer at the trial, stated the matter thus:

"The men actually don't know what happened. Had they been given a direct and specific order to load ammunition and had refused to obey that order, then the charge would be legitimate. But they say no direct order to load was issued them. They were asked whether they would load, and they replied that they were afraid.

"They have told me that they were

willing to go to jail to get a change of duty because of their terrific fear of the explosives, but they had no idea that verbal expression of their fear constituted mutiny."

There was considerable testimony to indicate that such was the case. Some of the men testified that while they were in confinement on the barge had they been ordered to work they would probably have done so. Others testified to the contrary, while at least one of the accused testified that he had asked permission to resume the loading but his superior officer had refused on the ground that he had had his chance and did not take advantage of it. The officer in question confirmed this.

Concerning the opportunity given the men to explain the reasons for their actions, it was brought out that the statements made in interviews—which statements were put in evidence—were not couched in the men's own words but purported to be a recording of what was relevant and important in the conversations as the interviewers recalled them from their notes.

The accused men were ably and conscientiously defended by white Naval officers appointed by the court. They sought to establish that under the circumstances the men were in no mental condition to make sound and considered decisions and statements.

No official psychologist was called to testify in the case, but statements were made by several specialists supporting the arguments of the defendants' attorneys as to their mental reactions.

Immediately after the sentences were announced, efforts were begun to have the reviewing bodies set aside the convictions or reduce the penalties. Mr. Marshall asked for permission to file a brief and personally appeared before the Navy's board of review on April 3, 1945.

On July 13, the Navy Department, through Acting Secretary Ralph A. Baird, announced that it had been determined that the sentences were legal

and that the trial had been fair and impartial.

Request was made then by Mr. Marshall for permission to file additional briefs and for opportunity for personal presentation of the case before Secretary of the Navy Forrestal. He did not get the opportunity, but the Secretary sent a letter dated August 13, saying that the sentences "have not been affirmed" and "have not yet come to me for final review."

In the meantime, petitions and appeals for clemency were coming from many sources, including the daily press; and Lester Granger, then on loan from the National Urban League as special aide to the Secretary, was giving the case attention along with his inspection of Naval installations on the West Coast.

The first week in January, 1946, it was announced that the convictions had been set aside and that the men were restored to duty on probation and were then "presumably overseas."

The Freeman Field Case

A disturbance which originated at Freeman Field, near Seymour, Ind., in April, 1945, had wide ramifications and repercussions.

At this field, where the only Negro bombardment group, the 477th, was stationed, technically there were no separate recreational facilities for white and Negro servicemen, but there was an officers' club for instructors and one for trainees, or students. However, all of the teachers were white and all the trainees were Negroes.

NOTE: Of the trainees, those who were pilots or bombardiers ranked as officers.

The 477th Bombardment group had been recently moved to Freeman Field from Godman Field, Ky. When they learned of the "white" officers' club, they decided to boycott all recreational facilities, contending that they were Jim-Crowed in violation of Army Order No. 97. This order is cited in

the topic "The Anti-Jim-Crow Order of July 8, 1944."

On April 5, sixty men of the group attempted to enter the officers' club. They were refused entrance and were ordered to be confined to their quarters. Later, 57 of the men were released and 3 were held for court-martial on charges of "jostling" a superior officer and refusing to obey the command of a superior officer.

A few days later, 101 of the group were arrested and confined to their quarters for refusing to sign a statement that they would confine themselves to the trainees' facilities allocated to them.

As the news of the affair spread, and Negroes protested to the War Department, the Department sent a directive to the Freeman Field commander, Col. Robert R. Selway, Jr., ordering him to withhold further disciplinary action pending the completion of an investigation by Washington authorities.

Within a few days, all were freed from detention in a trial at Godman Field, Ky., to which place they had been moved, except the three held in the original flare-up. These three—2nd Lts. Roger C. Terry and Marsden A. Thompson, of Los Angeles, and Shirley R. Clinton, of Camden, N.J.—were ordered to face a court-martial.

Meanwhile, Col. Selway had been relieved of command of the group and Col. Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., (Negro) put in command.

The court-martial detail of ten Negro officers which heard the case on July 22 and 23 was headed by Col. Davis. However, he did not actually preside at the trial, having been excused from the panel under challenge by the defense.

Clinton and Thompson were exonerated of all charges on the first day of the trial. On the second day, Terry was exonerated of the charge of disobedience, but was convicted of using violence in pushing aside a white officer. His penalty was forfeiture of \$50 pay for three months.

The Hawaiian Mutiny

The morning papers of February 1, 1945, carried a dispatch from United States Army Headquarters in Hawaii which said that 73 Negro soldiers in that area had been sentenced to hard labor terms ranging from eight to 30 years for refusal to report for work at an airport on Oahu, the night of July 31, 1944.

During the seven months preceding February 1, 1945, Army censorship had prevented any news of the revolt or of the trial from reaching the States.

Later information disclosed that 74 men were involved. There had been two trials by court-martial. In one trial, 69 were convicted and sentenced—two men to 17 years, the other 67 to 15 years. In a separate trial of five men, said to be the ring-leaders, two had been given 35 years, two 25 years, the other, 20 years.

On review by the commanding general, one man of the 69 had been granted a new trial and the sentences of the other 68 had been reduced—the 17-year sentences to 15 years; of the 15-year sentences, seven to 12 years, 48 to 10 years, and 11 to eight years. The 35- and 25-year sentences given the ring-leaders were reduced to 30 and 20 years respectively. The 20-year sentence stood.

The men involved were members of a company of engineers. They had become disgruntled, it was said, when their Negro officers were replaced by white officers because the enlisted men had complained of unfair promotion practices.

Describing the occurrence, a correspondent of the *Chicago Defender* stated that twice on the night in question, the regimental colonel had read to the company the articles of war dealing with mutiny, after the men had refused to leave their barracks for a lumber-moving task, but the reading failed to move them.

Later, he said, the men responded to the appeal of another colonel whom they regarded as less hostile. They also

complied with his request to make up the time lost. Several days later, the mutiny charges were preferred.

The case came to the attention of Walter White, executive secretary of the NAACP, while he was in Hawaii in December, 1944. Upon his return to the States in April, he conferred with the then Under Secretary of War, Robert Patterson, on behalf of the men. On June 17, Mr. White was advised that 67 of the men had been assigned to a rehabilitation company "where they were undergoing special training with view to restoration to duty."

On September 4, 1945, 52 of those undergoing rehabilitation were recommended for restoration to duty. In the *Chicago Defender* of October 13, 1945, the Hawaiian correspondent of the paper reported: "With few exceptions, these 'graduates' have made successful and enthusiastic soldiers, two having received the Bronze Star Medal and one the Silver Star. A third has been recommended posthumously for the nation's highest military award, the Congressional Medal of Honor, for valor far beyond the call of duty during the Okinawa campaign."

The status of the other convicted men had not been disclosed at the end of the year.

Mutiny at Mabry Field

The first week in May, 1944, a trial in a mutiny case at Dale Mabry Field near Tallahassee, Fla., ended with the conviction and sentencing of five Negro privates—two to 15-year terms and three to 13 years.

The offense with which they were charged occurred at the field on March 23, at which time the men, all of whom were prisoners in the guardhouse, refused to turn out for work until they could "see the colonel" and present certain grievances based, they felt, on racial discrimination.

Later, on June 21, the case was heard and taken under advisement by an Army board of review in Washington.

On September 6, Attorney David Levinson (white) who had voluntarily represented the men at the hearing, received notice that the sentences had been greatly reduced—the 15-year terms to five years, one 13-year term to three, the other two 13-year terms to two years.

A few days later, the remaining terms of two of the low-term men had been waived and the men sent to a rehabilitation camp.

At the review hearing, four mothers of the accused men made pleas, one of whom, mother of Leo M. Jones, of Philadelphia, said to be ringleader, recited a long story of humiliations and injustices which she said her son had endured, beginning with his rejection when he sought training as a pilot, because "Negroes were not (then) wanted in the air force." He did, however, later enter the air force as a mechanic and completed his course at Chanute Field, Ill., after which he was sent South where he was soon in difficulties because of his militant attitude.

Persecution and discrimination, she said, finally caused a nervous breakdown and a series of violations which finally landed him where he was at the time of the mutiny.

The Brookley Field Mutiny

On the night of May 24, 1944, a disturbance occurred at Brookley Field near Mobile, Ala., in which Negro soldiers and white military police exchanged shots, and one Negro sergeant, who was not a participant, was seriously wounded.

The sergeant was shot in crossfire when he attempted to move a jeep at the command of a white officer. That was the only casualty, although an estimated 1000 rounds were fired.

At the court-martial which followed a month later, nine Negro privates, charged with mutiny and failure to suppress mutiny and rioting, were con-

victed and three received sentences of 25 years, the other sentences ranging from 16 to 22 years.

At a board of review hearing in the Judge Advocate General's office in Washington in September, all sentences were confirmed.¹¹

Versions of what occurred on the night of the disturbance differ, but the most acceptable account indicates that the trouble originated when white military police sought to permit a white civilian to explore the Negro soldiers' quarters ostensibly to identify a soldier who had allegedly robbed him outside the gate.

When the soldiers learned that it was intended to turn over to civilian authorities whoever was "identified," they revolted and drove the MP's and the intruder out. The exchange of shots followed. The melee was quelled by unarmed superior officers who were not fired on.

Subsequent information indicated that the white civilian who alleged he had been robbed really had been beaten by a soldier in defense of a Negro woman.

The Fort Devens Case

This case, arising at the Lovell General Hospital, at Fort Devens, Mass., was not generally referred to as a mutiny, but as a case of disobedience or a sit-down strike.

The trouble came about through the refusal of four Negro members of the Women's Army Corps (WACs), to do certain work assigned to them which they felt was menial and was assigned to them because of their color.

At the court-martial which followed their refusal, they testified that white WACs were not required to do the type of work assigned to them. They also recited other acts of discrimination and quoted the commanding officer of the hospital as saying that he didn't

¹¹ The case is listed as a mutiny because of the charges and convictions at the court-martial, although it was first referred to as a riot.

want "black WACs" in the motor pool or as medical technicians.

The matter came to a head on March 10, 1944, when, despite the reading of the articles of war bearing on disobedience to the sixty Negro WACs on duty by Maj. Gen. Sherman Miles, in command of the military district, the four persisted in their refusal, while the 56 others went back to duty.

On March 20, a two-day trial ended in their conviction for disobeying a superior officer, and sentences of dishonorable discharge and a year at hard labor were given them. The trial board was composed of two white WACs, two Negro captains, and five other officers.

Protests and demands for reversal came from Congressmen and other sources. Two weeks later, on April 3, General Miles voided the court-martial proceedings and the four were restored to duty.

The War Department announced that the proceedings were vacated because the court was improperly convened. This decision turned on a finding that the commanding general, Miles, was "technically the accuser . . . and therefore not authorized to convene the court."

The Camp Claiborne Riot

At Camp Claiborne, near Alexandria, La., where a clash between Negro soldiers and white military and civilian police had occurred in January, 1942, an outbreak on the night of August 16, 1944, in which two soldiers and a white lieutenant were wounded, brought a death sentence to one soldier and long prison terms to twelve others.

There had been reports of incitements and provocations, including the killing of a soldier nine days previously by a white policeman in a town a few miles away.

During the previous week, armed white civilian and military police, accompanied by bloodhounds, for three days had searched the camp and nearby area for an unidentified soldier who

had allegedly raped two white women a few miles from the post. No one was arrested but the manner of the invasion and search caused strong resentment.

On the night of the uprising, a rumor had spread that the soldier wanted, or one who supposedly looked like him, had been killed just outside the camp. Thereupon—in the language of one account—"incensed soldiers broke into the arsenal, took several carbines, it is reported, and started showing their resentment."

Just how the firing began or who were engaged was not brought out except that one soldier (the one later given the death sentence) had led in "firing shots through an orderly room which houses the company commander and other officers." (These officers were presumably white, for there were no Negro officers in the area.)

Twenty-seven soldiers were arrested and in a series of court-martial trials six weeks later, thirteen of fourteen that were tried were convicted. The death penalty was given to Leroy McGrary, of Chicago; six received life sentences; two, 30 years; three, 25 years; and one 9 years.

The charges included mutiny, attempt to incite mutiny, disobedience, attempts to storm the supply room to secure ammunition, and holding two officers prisoners.

The one given 9 years, Sgt. Conway Price, of New York, was accused of failure as a non-commissioned officer to attempt to suppress a mutiny.

Price's case was presented to a review board on November 9, 1944, by E. R. Dudley, attorney for the NAACP, and later his conviction was voided by the board and he was sent to a rehabilitation camp. The sergeant's attorney contended that, not only was there not a mutiny in the presence of the accused, but that Price was conscientiously seeking some sort of instructions from the officers as to how best he could help in the situation.

The NAACP was later successful in having the death sentence of Pvt. Mc-

Grary commuted to dishonorable discharge, forfeiture of all pay and allowances, and confinement for forty years. The charges against him were participating in a riot, mutiny, and lifting arms against an officer.

What might be regarded as an aftermath of the case was the conviction and death sentence by a court-martial at Camp Claiborne, in November, of a Negro soldier, Pvt. Lee R. Davis, for the alleged assault on the women which gave rise to the searches of the camp just prior to the August riot. He was said to have confessed both crimes.

The Fort Lawton Anti-Italian Riot

On the night of August 14, 1944, a group of Italian prisoners of war at Fort Lawton, Wash., were attacked in their barracks by Negro soldiers. Thirty of the prisoner group were injured seriously and a few of the soldiers slightly. In addition, the body of an Italian prisoner was found hanged near the scene of the riot the following day.

On November 16, forty-three Negro soldiers were put on trial before an Army court-martial—forty charged with rioting and three with the murder of the prisoner found hanged.

The trial ended December 17, with twenty-eight convicted and thirteen acquitted. Two had been exonerated before the trial ended.

A few days later, sentences for twenty-seven were announced. The three men originally charged with murder were given 25, 20, and 15 years, respectively, the murder charge having been dropped during the trial, when evidence was presented which indicated that the prisoner who was found hanged had committed suicide. Other terms were: 10 years for eight men; eight years for six; five years for three; four years for four; three years for one; one year for one, and six months for one. The sentence of one man who was hospitalized was not announced.

In a release from the NAACP dated

November 1, 1945, it was stated that a petition for clemency had been filed for the men then remaining in confinement. Earlier it had been disclosed that the reviewing authority had suspended the dishonorable discharges of ten of the men and placed them in rehabilitation centers, with a view to early return to duty; and that the sentences of the others had been reduced so that the maximum was 15 years.

The cause of the clash was not explicitly brought out, but it appeared to have been due primarily to favored treatment of the Italian prisoners in the matter of work assignments, also fracas in which individual Negro soldiers were worsted, and ganging up on one soldier who was seeking to protect a white soldier from an Italian prisoner.

The Guam Disorders

Disturbances in which Negro Navy men on the Island of Guam claimed they suffered unprovoked annoyances and assaults by white troops began in the summer of 1944 and came to a climax Christmas night.

No publication of the matter was made in the States until six months later in a radio broadcast, July 7, 1945, by Walter White, secretary of the NAACP. In the meantime 45 Negro Navy men had been convicted by court-martial and given sentences from 4 months to 4 years for participating in the final uprising.

On Christmas Eve, according to Mr. White, a group of white servicemen had fired on a group of Negro seamen and run them out of the main town on the island. That same night a truckload of white Marines invaded the Negro camp making threats, charging that one of their number had been hit by a stone.

On Christmas Day, he said, a Negro serviceman was killed and another shot by white servicemen. That brought matters to a head, and that night, according to reports, twenty or thirty Negro naval men left the depot in two

trucks, without permission, to seek revenge.

They were intercepted by Negro masters-at-arms and white military police who found arms and ammunition in the vehicles. Later in the night, according to one version, white MP's, who were patrolling near the base, were fired on and one was wounded in the leg.

It developed that Mr. White, while in Guam in January, 1945, had, as a correspondent of the *New York Post*, written an account of the occurrence for this paper which Navy censors held up, but later sent on, marked "For release July 11, 1945."

The charges at the court-martial included riot and unlawful use of United States property, and lesser offenses. Three men received terms of less than two years, 33 got two years, the others 26 months to four years.

Efforts in behalf of the men were at once begun and continued through 1945. Early in January, 1946, it was announced that the 36 men still remaining in confinement would be released and cleared within a few days.

Seabees' Hunger Strike

A two-day hunger strike of a Navy Construction Battalion (Seabees) was staged at Camp Rousseau, Port Hueneme, Cal., March 3 and 4, 1945, in mass protest against Jim Crow conditions and lack of promotions. There was no violence and the thousand men involved continued work as usual during the strike.

For more than two months complaints and charges had been pouring into Washington, aimed mainly at the commander of the unit, Comdr. P. J. McBean, from Mississippi. There were complaints of segregation carried to extremes, of inequalities in quarters and food, and, above all, of injustice and discrimination in promotions.

The outfit had served overseas for 21 months and had made an outstanding record at Tulagi and Guadalcanal,

which even their allegedly prejudiced commander had praised.

Prior to the strike, the Navy Department had submitted to the NAACP a denial by McBean and by the commander of the base, who had commended McBean as having "an enlightened and fair attitude toward the colored race" and as being "genuinely interested in their welfare." Nevertheless he was removed from command, and after a period of rest and rehabilitation, the outfit went back overseas.

Seabees Discharge Case

On April 5, 1945, the Office of War Information announced that the Secretary of the Navy had approved the decision of the department's board of review that the discharges of 14 of the 15 Negro Seabees who were discharged as "undesirable by reason of unfitness" or because of "inaptitude" be changed to discharged "under honorable conditions."

Thus ended a case that had aroused uncommon interest and had been agitated by the press and many organizations for over a year.

The case grew out of the discharge in October, 1943, of 19 men who were members of the 80th Naval Construction Battalion (Seabees) under the conditions cited above.

At the time of the discharges no specific grounds for the action were made public; however, certain occurrences that had preceded the action were regarded as the cause.

A few days before the action, a dozen men, all of whom were in the group that was later discharged, were called into the office of the commanding officer and invited to give their views about racial conditions at the base, which was located on an island in the West Indies. According to the testimony of the men, they were told to talk man-to-man, that the conference was off the record.

Thus reassured, they were frank in stating their grievances, they said, and

in airing conditions that they regarded as biased and unfair, especially the lack of up-grading.

They pointed out that of the 80 percent of Negroes in the battalion, none were rated above second class petty officer, while all of the 20 percent of whites ranked higher.

Before the meeting broke up, the commander said that he would ask the chaplain to form a committee on inter-racial matters and that further meetings would be held.

The next day the superior officer at the base called the group together, and upbraided them for "griping," and announced that there would be no more conferences. A few days later, the twelve men in the original conference and seven others were discharged, sixteen as undesirable, and three on grounds of unfitness and inaptitude.

These three later, upon appeal, were given honorable discharges.

When the discharges and the conditions became known, there was a vigorous protest. The matter was taken to the Secretary who decided there were no grounds for relief. An appeal for reconsideration met no favor.

But efforts and agitation continued. Several national organizations, including members of both races, interested themselves in the case.

In June, 1944, the so-called Bill of Rights for servicemen had been made into a law by Congress. In this act there is a provision that discharged persons can have their discharges, such as the ones at issue, reviewed by a board. Fifteen of the sixteen men still without relief joined in a petition for review.

A review was granted and the date for a hearing set for December, 1944.

At the hearing on that date, attorneys representing several organizations pleaded the Seabees' case. Among the organizations represented were: the American Civil Liberties Union, the Winfred Lynn Committee,¹² the NAACP, and the CIO. The results were as stated above—fourteen of the fifteen petitioners were given discharges that stated, "under honorable conditions." One petitioner was refused relief because of a bad record prior to the incident preceding his discharge.

VIOLENCE AGAINST NEGRO SOLDIERS

The Durham, N.C., Murder

On July 8, 1944, a Negro soldier, Pvt. Booker T. Spicely, formerly connected with the business department of Tuskegee Institute, was killed in Durham, N.C., by a white bus driver.

The killing, like so many other cases of violence involving Negroes, grew out of a segregation law. Spicely entered a bus which was crowded, with Negroes seated toward the rear as the law required. As was customary when there were no seats available in the rear for Negroes, Spicely sat in a vacant seat well toward the front.

When some passengers had gotten off, making seats available toward the rear, the driver ordered Spicely to

move back to make room for white passengers entering the bus. Some of those entering were white soldiers who engaged in good natured banter with Spicely, agreeing with him that, since all were in the same uniform, it was ridiculous that he should make room for them.

Spicely moved to the rear, but the banter had angered the driver, and he had uttered a veiled threat. As Spicely was about to get off, he attempted to placate the driver by saying to him, "If I have said anything to offend you, I apologize."

However, it is said that on leaving the bus by the rear, he said to the driver, "If you weren't a lousy 4-F,

¹² This committee originally organized to press the case of Winfred Lynn, which had, on completion of case, changed its name and purpose.

you wouldn't be driving a bus." Thereupon, the driver got out, accosted Spicely, and shot him twice. He died in a few minutes.

The driver was indicted for second-degree murder, and the governor promised a fair trial.

The trial, which ended September 15, resulted in a jury verdict of not guilty. The driver had pleaded self-defense, saying that the soldier had advanced on him with his hand in his pocket.

The case attracted wide attention and interest. The Department of Justice at one time announced that it was studying the case to determine whether federal civil rights statutes had been violated. It did not enter the case.

WACs' Beating Case

While waiting in a bus station at Elizabethtown, Ky., on July 9, 1945, three Negro members of the Women's Army Corps (WAC) were set upon and beaten by civilian policemen. The beating occurred when they did not move promptly enough on orders to leave the "white" waiting room where they had sat down because the "colored" room was crowded.

When accosted by a policeman, they sought to explain the situation. While the parley was in progress, other police joined in and the parley was cut short when one policeman was reported to have raised his club, saying: "Down here, when we tell niggers to move, they move," and brought the club down on the head of one of the two younger women.

The oldest of the three tried to shield the younger ones, and was badly mauled, dragged across the street and jailed.

After a few hours she was released to join the younger ones and resume their journey to Fort Knox from which post they were on leave. In the meantime, though bleeding and suffering severely, the injured one received no treatment for her wounds.

At Fort Knox, it is reported, the three were called into the office of the

commander of the post and lectured and reprimanded for violating the state's Jim Crow laws, and informed that they would have to appear before a court-martial.

However, when investigation disclosed that Kentucky has no law requiring separation of the races in bus terminals, railroad stations, or other public buildings, the originally proposed charges were dropped, and they were charged with disorderly conduct. On that charge the three were arraigned before a seven-member board a month later and acquitted.

The hearing was held behind closed doors. The names of the officers who were appointed to the board were not disclosed, but it was learned that two of them were excused because they had formed opinions. These two acted as defense counsel.

Pending the trial and later, the War Department was urged to institute proceedings against the policemen involved in the assault, but no action was reported.

The Bohannon Case

On October 9, 1944, the Department of Justice announced the filing in the United States District Court in Dublin, Ga., of an information charging James Mitchell Bohannon, police chief of the town of Summit, Ga., with violation of the federal civil rights statute in the killing of Willie L. Davis, a Negro soldier. The information stated that Bohannon, "acting under the color of law," shot Davis without provocation, July 3, 1943.

The police chief had been called to a roadhouse to restore order, the information stated, and after order had been restored, he had "wilfully and unlawfully" shot Davis with a pistol.

No action was taken by the state authorities. The case was then referred to the Department of Justice by the War Department, but it was later dropped, for lack of evidence, according to an official statement.

SOME OUTSTANDING CRIMINAL CASES**The Fisher and Lowry Rape Case**

Of several cases involving Negro soldiers which were aired during the war and were called variously "War Scottsboro," "Little Scottsboro," "New Scottsboro," etc., none seemed to deserve a "Scottsboro" designation better than the case, or cases, of Pvts. Frank Fisher, Jr., and Edward R. Lowry.

The cases arose in New Caledonia, an island in the Southwest Pacific under control of the French. Fisher and Lowry were charged with the rape of a native French girl on the island, May 2, 1943. They were separately tried before courts-martial there and each was sentenced to life imprisonment.

The sentences were confirmed by military authorities in the Pacific command and the men were confined in prison at McNeil Island in the state of Washington.

When the circumstances of the case and the sentences became known, widespread interest was aroused. Under military regulations which permit annual reviews of such cases, the cases of these men were heard twice in the United States. Early in 1944, the cases came before the then Under Secretary of War, Robert P. Patterson, for clemency.

The hearing was held in March before Col. Philip McCook, a former judge of the Supreme Court of New York, who had been designated for the purpose. He confirmed the findings as legal, but recommended reduction of the sentences. Accordingly, in a statement of the Under Secretary, dated March 31, 1944, he announced a reduction of the sentences—Fisher's to ten years, and Lowry's to eight.

But the matter did not end there. Efforts and agitation continued. Judge William H. Hastie, of the legal staff of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and Congressman Vito Marcantonio, of

New York, who had represented the accused at the hearing, set about preparing a new petition to be presented under the departmental rule permitting annual reviews. In the new plea they took issue with several points in the Under Secretary's statement of March 31.

In the statement it had been contended that "before any case is presented to a general court-martial, it is subjected to pre-trial investigation. If investigation indicates that such action is warranted, it is brought to trial."

Counsel for the prisoners pointed out that, in the case at issue, the recommendation of the investigating officer was that "the facts did not warrant prosecution for rape."

At the original trial, and in the subsequent hearings, the fundamental issue was whether the intercourse with the girl had been by her consent. Evidence on this issue had been presented pro and con, and the petitions re-analyzed the evidence to show that it was by her consent. At the original trial it had been shown that the girl had accepted money, and that she was a diseased prostitute.

Other points were contested, among them, the adequacy of the defense of the accused at the original trial.

This second petition was filed in April of 1945, and in mid-August, the department announced that the appeal was rejected—that no further clemency would be granted.

The Camp Claiborne Rape Case

Three Negro soldiers—Pvts. Richard Adams, Lawrence Mitchell and John Walter Bordenave were charged with the rape of a young white woman at Camp Claiborne, near Alexandria, La., in 1942.

In this case, as in the New Caledonia case, the matter of consent on the part of the woman was the fundamental issue.

The men were first tried in a civil federal court; were convicted and given death sentences. On appeal, the United States Supreme Court voided the trial on the grounds of lack of jurisdiction.

In a later trial before a military court in July, 1943, they were again convicted and given death sentences.

In May, 1944, a review board which had heard the case recommended commutation; accordingly the sentences were reduced to life imprisonment.

The Leroy Henry Case

A case which attracted wide attention in the early summer of 1944 concerned Cpl. Leroy Henry, a Negro soldier in the American forces then being assembled in England.

Henry's death sentence by an American court-martial on a charge of rape aroused the British press and people, not only because of the severity of the penalty but because of grave doubts of the validity of the charge.

The soldier was accused of raping a housewife near Bath. According to testimony, scantily dressed, she left her husband in bed late at night and walked down a road with the soldier. At the trial she stated that he had asked her, in a brief conversation through an open window, to show him the way to a bus station, and that on the way, the attack had occurred.

His statement was that he knew her well; had had intercourse with her several times before, always for a consideration. On this occasion, he said, she demanded more than he could pay and threatened him with trouble. This

soon came when her husband, who had awakened, found them on the road.

The newspapers protested; thousands signed petitions in the soldier's behalf, and the Americans were accused of importing their racial prejudices into England.

Gen. Eisenhower, then in supreme command in Britain, acted promptly and decisively; without awaiting the formality of a review by a board, he set aside the conviction and restored Henry to duty.

One notable feature of the case was the disclosure that one of the eight members of the court-martial was a Negro captain whose identity was not disclosed.

Portsmouth Rape Case

Another case, in which the severity of the sentence and doubts as to guilt aroused protests, occurred in Southwest England.

In this case, Joseph Ballot, a Negro soldier, was sentenced to life imprisonment by an American court-martial in February, 1944, for the alleged molestation of a girl in Portsmouth.

Knowledge of the case was brought to the attention of the NAACP in September through a letter from an English woman whose husband had led in securing a reduction of the sentence (which she said was given "no doubt on account of his color") to 20 years. This penalty, she insisted, was still too severe in view of the circumstances.

A cabled request was made for a record of the trial with a view to determining whether further intervention was justified. But there was no publication of further action.

DRAFT VIOLATION CASES

Introduction

Cases of Negroes being charged with, and convicted of, violation of the Selective Service Act were reported during World War II. The majority of the cases, like those of

white violators, were owing to ignorance of the law, or were based upon religious convictions or conscientious scruples against bearing arms. But a few cases stood out as exceptions because the violators knowingly refused

to report for induction on the grounds that they would not serve in a segregated army.

The following cases were prominent in the latter category.

Winfred W. Lynn Case

The most outstanding case of violation of the Selective Service Act, and the only case in which an attempt was made to test the legality of the racial quota practice of the War Department in connection with the act, was that of Winfred William Lynn, a gardener of Jamaica, L.I., N.Y.

In September of 1942 Mr. Lynn, then 36, was notified by his local draft board to report for induction. The order was issued pursuant to a requisition by the New York City Director of Selective Service, which informed the local board of Jamaica that, "Your quota for this call is the first 90 white men and the first 50 Negro men who are in Class 1-A."

Mr. Lynn refused to report, stating in a letter to the board that he was "ready to serve in any unit of the armed forces of my country which is not segregated by race," and saying that he would not report for induction unless he was assured that he could serve in a racially mixed regiment.

He was indicted by a federal grand jury. His counsel filed a petition for a writ of habeas corpus, basing his plea on the grounds that the induction order was invalid, "having been issued to your petitioner as a part of a 'Negro quota' and your petitioner was not bound to obey said order." The legal question raised was not one of discrimination in training or service, but in the selection of draftees.

In December, Federal Judge Mortimer Byers dismissed the petition without argument, saying that he would not consider the merits of the case so long as Mr. Lynn refused induction. The gardener's counsel then persuaded him to report for induction

so that the case could be fought on its merits.

He reported for induction and in January, 1943, the argument was heard for the granting of the writ in the Brooklyn Federal Court. Mr. Lynn lost the case and was sent back to camp. The case was appealed, and in February, 1944, the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in New York again decided against the gardener in a two-to-one decision. The decision was appealed to the United States Supreme Court.

Meanwhile, Lynn, who had become a corporal, was sent overseas with his unit.

Early in 1944 the Supreme Court refused to review the lower court's decision, and upon another appeal, again refused, in August of the same year, on the grounds that since the soldier was serving in the South Pacific, no one in the Eastern District of New York, where the case arose, nor any War Department official, could produce him in court or order his release.

Lewis Jones Case¹⁸

Lewis Jones, 28, of New York City, was arrested in 1942 on a charge of violation of the Selective Service Act and was arraigned in the Federal Court in New York in October of that year. He pleaded guilty to the charge and declared that he would not serve his country in a segregated army. Despite efforts of the judge and a number of prominent citizens to persuade him to change his mind, Mr. Jones held to his stand and was reluctantly sentenced to three years in prison, following a three-month period of freedom given to him in which to change his mind. He served his sentence and was released in 1945.

Donald W. Sullivan Case¹⁸

The case of Donald W. Sullivan, of Newark, N.J., was similar to that of Lewis Jones. After all efforts to per-

¹⁸ Further details of this case may be found in *The Negro Handbook* for 1944.

suade him to change his mind failed, he was sentenced to three years in prison. In imposing the sentence, Judge Philip Forman of the United States District Court in Trenton told the young man that his resentment of discrimination was justified, but that his form of resentment was unwise and illegal.

George L. Haney Case

In October, 1944, George L. Haney, of Chicago, refused to report for induction into the Army for the same reason that the three men mentioned above gave—refusal to serve in a segregated army. After nine hearings in court, Judge Philip L. Sullivan of the Federal Court dismissed the case on the grounds that Haney had not refused to report for induction. The man had reported to his draft board following his notification, but would not sign his induction papers. He was

permitted to return home, he said, and did not receive a second notice, which the Federal Bureau of Investigation contended that he had received.

In May, 1945, Mr. Haney was re-indicted by a Federal Grand Jury. He was later tried and convicted and sentenced to one year and a day. He appealed the sentence, but the Appellate Court upheld the conviction.

After serving six months in the Sandstone Prison in Minnesota, Mr. Haney was released. He said that authorities gave him no reason for his release.

Bayard Rustin Case

In March, 1944, Bayard Rustin, co-secretary of the race relations department of the Fellowship of Reconciliation, refused to report for induction into the Army, basing his refusal on both religious and racial grounds. He was sentenced to three years in prison.

SEDITION CASES

Scores of arrests and convictions of Negroes for sedition or conspiracy to commit sedition were made during World War II. Most of those arrested were members of semi-religious cults or racial movements of various sorts. In most cases the charges involved the dissemination of propaganda in support of Japan or the attempted persuasion of Negroes not to join the country's armed forces.

Some of the organizations to which the defendants belonged were racial nationalistic groups which seek to organize republics of colored races in their efforts to combat the discrimination practiced against Negroes in this country.¹⁴

Among the organizations to which those convicted of sedition charges belonged were the Temple of Islam, the Peace Movement for Ethiopia, the Pacific Movement, the House of Israel,

the Colored Brotherhood of America, Colored American National Organization, and the Moslems. Many of those arraigned contended that they owed their allegiance to Ethiopia or other foreign governments.

Of some eighty Negroes arrested in Chicago in 1942, on charges of sedition or conspiracy to commit sedition, approximately 56 were given sentences ranging from three years down. In New York, five were convicted and sentenced to from four to eight years each. In St. Louis, two were found guilty and sentenced to four years each.

In April, 1945, one of the white followers of Father Divine, cult leader originally of Harlem who later set up headquarters in Philadelphia, was sentenced to two and one half years for refusing to serve in a segregated army. He was John Ernest Taylor, 26.

¹⁴ Further details of the 1942 and 1943 cases may be found in *The Negro Handbook* for 1944.

THE EASTLAND CHARGES

On June 29, 1945, Senator James O. Eastland, from Mississippi, startled the country by charges against American Negro troops in a speech in the Senate.¹⁵

Among other assertions were: that American Negroes "who would neither work nor fight" committed criminal assaults against families of French farmers; that the 92nd Negro Infantry Division was an "utter and dismal failure." These assertions were elaborated by recital of alleged details that he said responsible high-ranking generals had told him while he was on a recent overseas trip.

Most sensational of all was the charge of a mass rape of "several thousand Christian German girls . . . who were rounded up and placed in a sub-way," while for four or five days the criminal attacks were carried on by French Senegalese soldiers.

This latter charge, of course, was not leveled against American Negro soldiers, but the inference was obvious.

These charges brought quick refutation. Under Secretary of War Patterson a few days later, at a press conference, was asked whether the charge that the conduct and performance of Negro troops was disgraceful was the Army's view. He replied: "No, if any 'high-ranking' general has made such a statement I have no knowledge of it.

"You have already heard the views of our leading commanders—General Eisenhower, General MacArthur, General Baker and others—which do not support any such conclusion.

"The War Department is proud of

its troops, and that includes Negroes as well as all other groups. There have been a number of press releases in the past few months, commending the behavior of units made up of Negro troops."

High-ranking French officers made sweeping and explicit denials of the mass rape charges, so there was soon nothing factual left of the senator's tirade.

While the discussion was hot, the press published columns of commendations and praise of Negro troops by the American commanders that Secretary Patterson had named and by many others. Secretary Patterson said further:

"General Eisenhower spoke of the good performance of the volunteer platoons that were used in the European theater. The Inspector General went out of his way to comment favorably on the performance of the 24th Infantry Regiment in the Marianas, and there have been a number of similar commendations."

The year before, the French governor of New Caledonia in the Southwest Pacific had made somewhat similar charges against colored troops there. The statements were made at a press conference during which he also asserted that the Americans acted as an army of occupation, and complained of damage to roads by American vehicles and overpayment of natives for work.

His charges were promptly denied by ranking American officers and his complaints ignored.

THE CROATAN INCIDENT

The daily papers of December 6, 1945, carried a news story to the effect that the day before at Le Havre, France, the crew of a Navy Escort

Aircraft Carrier, the *Croatan*, had refused to take on a group of 123 Negro soldiers who were listed by the Army to return to the States on the vessel.

¹⁵ His charges against Negro soldiers were a part of an attack on Negroes generally, during a filibuster against a bill authorizing a permanent national fair employment practices commission.

It was stated that the captain objected because he had no separate facilities. However, six Negro troops—an officer and five enlisted men—did board the vessel and were brought over with the 1200 whites. It was said at first that the six were boarded by mistake. That was later denied.

Both Army and Navy spokesmen expressed regret over the occurrence, and each branch of the service put the blame on the other. The officers concerned made statements and explanations for the press.

The ship captain stated that he had not refused to accept the Negro group but had merely said that he "preferred not to do so," thinking that he was carrying out the Army's policies of separation, for which his accommodations did not provide.

The statement from the Army diluted to some degree the Navy's protestations of mistake. It said: "Although there were protests by Army representatives, the ship's officers persisted in their refusal to accept this unit."

The statement went further and said that when the group which the Army had substituted for the rejected Negro group "arrived at the gangplank, it was discovered for the first time that it included one Negro officer and five Negro enlisted men."

The statement went on: "The ship's officers . . . protested against the embarkation of these six individual Negroes, but the port authorities [Army officers] ignored their protests and boarded them notwithstanding." And further: "The ship's officers then requested that the six be removed, but the port authorities refused to comply. . . ."

However, these men stated that they were, as the Navy statement said, treated well while on the voyage.

As a result, the Navy, "to avoid future misunderstanding," issued a statement which said: "In the administration shall be made because of race or color. This applies also to authorized personnel of all the armed services of this country aboard Navy ships or at Navy stations and activities.

"In their attitude and day-to-day conduct of affairs, naval officers and enlisted men shall adhere rigidly and impartially to naval regulations in which no distinction is made between individuals wearing the naval uniform or the uniform of any of the armed services of the United States because of race or color."

The Army made no further statement and presumably stood by its announced policy of "separate units" but permit no "discrimination."

THE GIBSON CONTROVERSY

Negroes received a distinct shock when, the last week in February, 1945, a white weekly news magazine published what were purported to be the statements of Truman K. Gibson, Negro civilian aide to the Secretary of War, who had been sent to Europe ostensibly to report on the conditions and attitudes of Negro soldiers.

Mr. Gibson was reported as saying, in effect, to newspapermen in Europe, that the 92nd Infantry Division—all Negro, except most of the officers—had not made a good showing, had, in fact, failed in certain respects.

Among statements attributed to him were: that in combat, Negro groups "melted away" on certain occasions, that the 92nd engaged in "more or less panicky retreats," and other derogatory remarks.

What made the matter most damaging was that in many quarters, these derogatory statements were later applied to Negro soldiers generally by white persons.

In a later statement, Mr. Gibson ascribed what he had regarded as a poor showing to the low educational equipment of a large part of the rank

and file of the division. He pointed out that 17 percent of its personnel were in Class V, the lowest literacy class admitted to the Army; 75 percent in Class IV, the next lowest class, and stated: "You can't apply the same training schedules where that many men are illiterate as where only 4 percent are."

After Mr. Gibson returned to the United States, he made a report to the War Department. Concerning this report, a writer in the *People's Voice*, a Negro weekly, said:

"Although Mr. Gibson pointed out in his report . . . that intolerable Jim Crow conditions facing the members of the 92nd on the fighting fronts in Italy and the persecution they had undergone on the home front before they left for battle were the real reasons behind demoralization of the troops, he emphasized the high ratio of illiteracy existing in the division."

The high proportion of illiteracy and the other matters mentioned would have gone a long way toward explaining the division's bad showing had there really been an unusually bad showing; but abundant evidence was soon forthcoming to show that such instances of poor showing as did occur were the common experience with such "green" troops as were involved in the setback that gave rise to the criticism.

It was brought out that, prior to this setback, the division had made a creditable record. It was later developed that the troops which lost ground in the German attack were a newly "attached" group that had never had any combat experience or adequate training for combat.

In short, the setback was an exceptional occurrence due to exceptional circumstances, as is shown in the history of the 92nd Division.

There were loud cries for Mr. Gibson's dismissal. It was intimated that

he had been "used"—not by top officials of the War Department, but by some "influence" within it.

In support of the claim that Mr. Gibson had been "used," Adam Clayton Powell, Harlem's Negro Congressman and newspaper editor, asserted that in an interview with Mr. Gibson before his departure on his observation trip, he (Gibson) had made almost the identical comments on the Negro troops that he was reported to have made in the objectionable articles, only that Mr. Gibson had at that time said of the matters that he "had been informed."

Investigation, however, developed that the worst, if not all, of the damage resulted from the fact that Mr. Gibson's full statements were not quoted, but only those parts which were regarded as newsworthy, that is, sensational—a common newspaper practice.

Mr. Gibson did not make a formal defense of the accusations and criticisms hurled against him. He did, however, make his position clear in a statement that he made at a press conference on Monday, April 9, after he returned to the United States.

In this statement, he dealt chiefly with the work of Negro soldiers in the then recently constituted "mixed" regiments. He touched upon the work of other classes of troops and praised the efforts of the Supreme Command to prevent discrimination on account of race. He concluded: "Certainly the record being made by Negro soldiers gives the lie to any charge that Negroes cannot and will not fight."

The storm was violent while it lasted, but it was soon dissipated in the laudation lavished on the performance of Negro platoons in the white divisions then going into action in Germany, and in the excellent work of the 92nd Division itself. (See section on "Mediterranean Theater of Operations.")

THE ANTI-JIM-CROW ORDER OF JULY 8, 1944

The morale of Negro servicemen and women was given a big lift when in late July, 1944, it was disclosed that the War Department had issued an order dated July 8, aimed at abolishing racial segregation in recreational and transportation facilities at all Army stations. A large part of the Negro press hailed the order with enthusiasm.

The first paragraph of the order referred to a previous letter dated March 3, 1943, "in which it was directed that all personnel regardless of race would be afforded equal opportunity to enjoy recreational facilities on each post."

It stated further: "While in general the spirit of the aforementioned letter has been observed, occasional reports indicate that practices exist on some installations that are not in harmony with its provisions." (Some commanders held that the so-called "order" was merely a "directive." The document was designated "Memorandum No. 97"; the word "order" or the word "ordered" did not appear in the text.)

The order then read:

Exchanges—While exchanges and branch exchanges may be allocated to serve specific areas or units, no exchange will be designated for the exclusive use of any particular race. Where such branch exchanges are established, personnel will not be restricted to the use of their area or unit exchange, but will be permitted to use any other exchange on the post, camp, or station.

Transportation—Buses, trucks, or other transportation owned and operated either by the government or by governmental instrumentality will be available to all military personnel regardless of race. Restricting personnel to certain sections of such transportation because of race will not be permitted either on or off a post, camp, or station, regardless of local civilian custom.

Army Motion Picture Theaters—Army motion picture theaters may be allocated to serve certain areas or units but no theater or performance in any theater will be denied any group or individual because of race.

As might have been expected, the order raised a storm of opposition, particularly in the South. Southern leaders and newspapers were outspoken in denunciation and defiance. A typical editorial in the *Montgomery (Ala.) Advertiser* said: "Army orders, even armies, even bayonets, cannot force impossible and unnatural social relations upon us. It has been tried before and failed. It will fail if tried again."

Governor Sparks, of Alabama, sent a telegram of protest to the President. Senators and members of the House from the South joined in a demand that the order be revoked.

The Army authorities, however, politely refused, but the refusal was mildly worded, which fact did not go unnoticed by the opponents of the order. Under Secretary of War Patterson, in his reply to Governor Sparks, said: "All soldiers, regardless of race, must be afforded equal opportunity to enjoy the recreational facilities which are provided at army posts, camps, and stations."

"The thought has been that men who are fulfilling the same obligations, suffering the same dislocation of their private lives, and wearing identical uniforms should, within the confines of the military establishment, have the same privileges for rest and relaxation."

The Secretary, in his reply to the Governor, repeated the statement in the order, that "all soldiers regardless of race must be afforded equal opportunity to enjoy the recreational facilities which are provided at army posts, camps and stations," and added the cryptic statement that the War Depart-

ment is "not an appropriate medium for effecting social readjustments."

One feature of the matter did not escape the notice of the opposers. The order, when sent out, was marked "Restricted" and was not generally made known at army posts until after the Negro press had disclosed its existence.

At a few posts, Negro servicemen, especially officers, attempted to take advantage of its provisions.

At Tuskegee Army Air Field, a group boldly walked into the section of the restaurant previously reserved for whites and demanded service. After some argument, in which they cited the new order of which they had learned through the press, they were served.

Some white officers left the room, others indicated their approval, and three days later, the commanding officer called all the officers together and explained that although he knew that many objected to the order—which after a month's delay, had been posted that morning—he could do nothing about it.

However, at most of the posts, various things were done about it. At Fort Benning, for example, the commander, Colonel Edgerly, is reported to have stated that the order was merely a directive and would not mean any change in the practices there. He is said to have assured white troops that the order need not be complied with and warned Negro soldiers against efforts to take any advantage of it.

A similar course was followed all over the South and even at some stations in the North.

At Fort Riley, Kan., Negro members of the State Guard then in training there were ordered out of the white section in a theater on the post. When they refused to sit in the Jim Crow section and demanded the return of their money they failed to get a refund.

At Selfridge Field in Michigan,

where Negro Air Force units were being trained, colored officers attempted to use the officers' club, but were barred. (There was no separate club for Negro officers.) The commanding officer of the field upheld the bar and the commanding officer of the area backed him up. A similar incident occurred at Freeman Field and resulted in a court-martial. (See "Freeman Field Case.")

There was a near riot at Fort Knox in Kentucky when two Negro servicemen were forcibly ejected from the post theater for refusing to sit in a segregated section. Hundreds of troops at nearby Godman Field threatened a march to Fort Knox to protest the action, but were restrained by their Negro officers. White military police had been stationed around the theater when word spread that the Negroes were incensed. The commander at Fort Knox said in an interview that he saw no reason to change the segregation policy.

So it went all over the country. Whatever relief came to Negro personnel was due to local tolerance, the War Department seeming unable or unwilling to make the order effective.

In a letter to the department, the NAACP called specific attention to the conduct of Colonel Edgerly at Fort Benning. The Assistant Secretary of War replied, stating that the matter would be investigated and "suitable action" taken. But there was no report of any action.

In the United States, responsible officers were, for the most part, hostile or lukewarm concerning enforcement of the department's declared policy. However, across the water in England, Lt. Gen. John C. H. Lee, deputy commander to General Eisenhower, was reported as letting it be known that the provisions of the order would be strictly carried out. General Eisenhower himself had taken a similar stand when he assumed supreme command some months earlier.

REDISTRIBUTION (REST) CENTERS

When the Army, in the late summer of 1944, announced a plan "to provide facilities in an environment where troops may relax from the strain of overseas service and enjoy recreational opportunities while being reclassified and re-orientated for future assignments," the question of the Negro soldiers' participation in this program arose.

The question seemed doubly vexatious at that particular time, because the top officials were then in the midst of their efforts to make effective the recent directive of July 8, 1944, looking toward some relief for Negro personnel from segregation and exclusion practices at army posts and installations.

Contemporaneous with the announcement of the plan, some forty-nine hotels in five resort locations were named as having been selected for use in the program.

Of the five locations designated—Hot Springs, Ark.; Santa Barbara, Cal.; Ashville, N.C.; Miami Beach, Fla.; and Lake Placid, N.Y.—it was certain that in only two of the locations was there any likelihood that Negroes could be housed except in a strictly segregated pattern, if at all.

To meet the difficulty, the authorities set about the selection of hotels that were patronized chiefly by Negroes in various cities of the North. One of the first selected was the Pershing Hotel in Chicago's crowded Southside.

The announcement of the intention to take over the Pershing, which was made the first week in September, was followed by vigorous objections based on several reasons in addition to the matter of segregation. It was objected that Chicago's Southside could not by any stretch be regarded as a "resort" suitable to the purposes announced. Locally, too, the urgent need of housing available to Negroes was pointed out.

While discussing the general unsuitability of this hotel or any hotel in a

large city, the Jim Crow features received the less attention, yet it was pointed out that the Army Air Forces were then operating a redistribution center in Atlantic City of the most approved type where all personnel were being processed without regard to race.

The Navy also was at the time operating the Naval Convalescence Hospital on a non-discrimination plan in a large hotel at Sea Gate, Coney Island, N.Y.

The week following the announcement of the purpose to take over the Pershing Hotel, it was announced that the Theresa Hotel in New York City's Harlem district was to be occupied by the Army as a rest center for Negro soldiers.

All the objections raised against the use of the Pershing in Chicago were brought up. Protests multiplied. Some protests and appeals reached the President. After about two weeks, it was announced that the Army would delay action until a complete study could be made.

On October 10 came the news that the Army had abandoned its plans to establish separate rest centers for Negro soldiers in the North; that instead of the hotels which had been mentioned for that use, Negroes would be admitted on the same basis as whites to the centers already established at Lake Placid, N.Y., and at Atlantic City, N.J., and at the center to be established at Santa Barbara, Cal.

At the same time, it was announced that sick returnees, regardless of race, would be housed in hotels of their selection among those established for such cases in northern cities.

No specific statement was made concerning the southern resorts, but presumably the hotels in those localities would remain for whites only, and Negroes would be cared for in the North.

An official release concerning the

Army Ground and Service Forces Redistribution Center at Atlantic City, established in December of 1944 in one of the resort's largest and most luxurious hotels, stated that it was set up on the principle that "a true picture of a soldier's abilities can be attained only when he is completely relaxed and comfortably situated," and "to achieve this end nothing has been spared in providing the returnee with every recreational activity that ingenuity can provide."

The normal stay at this center was

fourteen days, and a soldier might have his wife with him without cost.

At the time of the release, the center had been in operation five months, processing thousands each month, of whom about 25 percent were Negroes. They experienced no discrimination or segregation of any sort.

Similar non-segregated recreational facilities were established for troops on rest leaves in the European area, the most publicized being on the famous Riviera Coast of the Mediterranean.

THE MIXED UNITS EXPERIMENT

A burst of elation came from the Negro press in January, 1945, when it was disclosed that Negro troops would be included among the troops then being assembled to be used as replacements in the combat ground forces for the campaign on German soil. Those replacements were to come from service forces and surplus air and other forces.

The quota of Negro troops in this movement was set at 2000—later raised to 2500. These were to be volunteers from anti-aircraft, quartermaster and service personnel. So eager were Negroes in these forces to get into combat that volunteers soon more than doubled the quota.

It was stated that the Negro replacements, after a short training for the infantry, would be integrated in white units. It turned out, however, that the integration was not as individuals, but was in the form of platoons or so-called provisional companies, widely distributed as units in white regiments.

In general, these platoons of about fifty men each, formed about one fifth of a company—one such mixed company to a regiment.

This arrangement was not wholly satisfactory to Negroes but was accepted as an advance over what had gone before and as a hoped-for step toward ultimate full integration and abolition of racially separate units.

Within two or three months these platoons, which were under white non-commissioned officers, were in action on the east side of the Rhine in several divisions of the First Army, namely, the 1st, 2nd, 9th, 69th, 78th, 99th, and 104th Infantry Divisions.

A news dispatch from that Army's headquarters of March 26 stated:

"Early reports made by white officers say that the Negro troops have given a good account of themselves in their initial actions alongside white troops."

The dispatch also said: "The Army is keeping close check on the Negro platoons, since this is the first time they have been placed in the same divisions with white soldiers on the fighting fronts."

The procedure was admittedly an experiment. Army circles were especially doubtful concerning the reception that the Negro units would receive from the white rank and file. However, these doubts were soon dispelled. A staff writer for the Army newspaper, *Stars and Stripes*, in the Paris edition of April 6, 1945, said: "If comments of white personnel of these divisions are any indication, the plan of mixing white and colored troops in fighting units, a departure from previous United States Army practice, is operating successfully."

Negro reinforcements reported a sincere, friendly welcome, and they

continued to receive commendation and praise from the white officers and enlisted men. Accounts of valiant and effective activities of units and of individual soldiers appeared in the press and in the releases by the War Department. A War Department release of April 30 said: "The volunteer Negro infantrymen who joined the 78th (Lightning) Division on March 14, crossed the Rhine that day and entered the hot battle then in progress, have established themselves as fighting men no less courageous or aggressive than their white comrades. . . ."

Among the first Negro troops to engage in combat east of the Rhine were men from the quartermaster, engineer and transportation corps units. Most of them took reductions in grade to become fighting privates. [Some accepted reductions from first sergeant. None were graded higher in the platoons than private first class.]

Some typical comments from white officers of the 78th Division:

Lt. John M. Green, 309th Regt.: "They are aggressive and eager. . . . I'm well pleased with their performance under fire." Lt. Millard G. Durham, 310th Regt.: "Their first engagement was a terrific small-arms battle. They never faltered. On the contrary, they were hard to control. Their sole desire seemed to be to close with the enemy, regardless of the scheme of maneuver." Lt. Luther Lee, 311th Regt.: "They came through their baptism of fire in great shape."

In a ceremony in May when ten Negro doughboys of the 104th (Timberwolf) Division received Silver Star Medals, the division commander, Maj. Gen. Terry Allen, told them: "We're all proud of you," and Brig. Gen. Charles Trueman, the assistant division commander, said: "I have never seen any soldiers who have performed better in combat than you."

But the war in Europe soon drew to a close and preparations began to reinforce the forces in the Pacific areas then engaged in fighting Japan.

The First Army, in which these Negro platoons had been fighting, was one of the armies designated for transfer to the Pacific via the United States, where the men would be given a short rest and be re-equipped.

A release from the War Department dated May 28, 1945 said:

"The divisions and Army corps that will fight with the First Army, now on the move from Europe to the Pacific by way of the United States, against Japan, will not necessarily be the same as those that fought in Germany. However, enough veteran Negro units and Negro personnel will take the field under General Courtney H. Hodges to insure the same rigorous assault against the Japanese as was made by the First Army against the Germans."

That seemed reassuring, for already disturbing rumors had circulated to the effect that the Negro volunteers would not be retained in the divisions that were to go to the Pacific.

The rumors soon proved to be true and not only were the re-deployed divisions being denuded of their Negro units, but the men composing them were being re-assigned to their former service and labor jobs to serve with occupation forces in the European area.

When these proceedings became known, the Negro press expressed regret, protest and even indignation. Correspondents abroad sent doleful stories of deep disappointment and lowered morale. But the War Department seemed adamant.

The Negro troops who were the most dependent over their re-assignment to labor forces were those who had fought in the mixed divisions in Germany. They had volunteered, they said, for combat service in this area with the understanding that they would remain in these divisions until the end of the war. They were deeply hurt at prospect of returning home in service divisions.

As a last desperate action for re-

dress, a delegation of these troops sought an audience with General Eisenhower, commander-in-chief of European military forces, to plead their case. They were received at the general's headquarters in Germany by one of his assistants and were promised that their case would be given favorable consideration.

In September, 1945, the victory for these Negro troops was won. Some of them, who had already been transferred to service units, were transferred to the 69th Infantry Division or the 350th Field Artillery Battalion, which was on occupation duty in Germany.

Of the 1200 remaining at the time in Europe, none were left in labor battalions. About 700 later sailed home with the 69th Division and those remaining, approximately 500 with less than 60 points, were assigned to the 350th Field Artillery still in Europe.

That the "experiment" of mixing, so far as it went, was a success, and had met the approval of the white officers and non-coms who participated, was demonstrated by the results of a survey conducted under Army supervision in May and June, shortly after hostilities ceased in Europe.

The fact of the survey and its results were held by the department as "restricted" (not to be published) until September, when the facts leaked out. Shortly afterward, the department made the report of the investigators public, partly in the form of a tabulated summary of the findings.

The findings were based on interviews with all of the available white officers, 250 in number, and the non-

coms who were connected with the Negro platoons. A cross-section of white privates also was included. All were asked to fill out and return unsigned questionnaires which were furnished.

In answer to the question, "How well did the colored soldiers perform in combat?" 84 percent of the white officers answered "Very well," and 81 percent of the non-coms gave the same answer.

Sixty-nine percent of the white officers and 83 percent of the white non-coms said that colored troops with the same training and experience performed "just the same as white troops." Seventeen percent of the officers and nine percent of the non-coms said that the Negro infantry performed "better than white troops." Only five percent of the officers and four percent of the non-coms thought that the performance of Negroes was not as good as white troops.

Most of the officers and the non-coms admitted that they were skeptical when Negro troops joined their outfits. Sixty-four percent of the officers and 64 percent of the non-coms were skeptical or did not like the idea of mixed units and "thought it would cause trouble."

After serving in the same outfit with Negro soldiers, 77 percent of the officers and 77 percent of the non-coms admitted that their opinions had been changed and that they "felt more respect for Negroes" and liked them better. It is significant that no cases were found in which an individual reported that his attitude had become less favorable.

ARMY POLICY OF POST-WAR UTILIZATION OF NEGRO MANPOWER

Toward the close of the war, Negroes began to question government authorities concerning the policy of the peacetime army in regard to Negro

servicemen. They urged complete abolition of segregation in the peacetime army, pointing with pride to the performance of the racially mixed combat

troops in Germany near the close of the European campaign.

There was no unanimous opinion among Negroes concerning proposed compulsory military training. (Legislation to this effect was recommended by President Harry S. Truman, but it had not come up on the floor of Congress up to May, 1946.)

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People opposed peacetime conscription under existing conditions, asserting that under current army policy conscription would tend to perpetuate segregation. Other Negro organizations and individuals, although demanding elimination of segregation, did not oppose compulsory military training, even under present policy, arguing that many Negro youths would benefit by the training—both in health, education, discipline, and vocational training.

The War Department announced in October, 1945, that a board of generals had been appointed to work out a policy on the utilization of Negroes in the postwar army. The recommendations made by the board, known as the Gillem Report, were approved by the War Department in April, 1946. The release explaining the new policy, issued on May 2, 1946, by the War Department follows in part:

Adoption of a policy based on recommendations of the Gillem Report to effect the maximum efficient utilization of the authorized Negro manpower in the postwar period, was announced today by the War Department.

The provisions that will obtain in the implementation of the new policy were incorporated in a War Department Circular published on April 27, 1946, for distribution to all Army commands, camps, posts, stations, and overseas theaters.

The Gillem Report was made by a board of officers convened by direction of the Secretary of War to study the utilization of Negro

manpower in the postwar Army on a broader professional basis than has obtained heretofore.

Under the chairmanship of Lieutenant General Alvan C. Gillem, who commanded the XIII Corps, Ninth Army, European Theater of Operations, the Board convened on October 4, 1945, and on March 4, 1946, released its recommendations which were approved by the War Department.

The following provisions, based on the Report, and included in the new War Department Circular, will obtain in the implementation of the new policy:

1. The troop basis for the postwar Army will include Negro troops approximately in the 1 to 10 ratio of the Negro civilian population to the total population of the nation.

2. To meet the requirements of training and expansion, combat and service units will be organized and activated from the available Negro manpower. Employment will be in Negro regiments or groups, separate battalions or squadrons, and separate companies, troops or batteries, which will conform in general to other units of the postwar Army. A proportionate number of these units will be organized as part of larger units. White officers assigned to Negro organizations will be replaced by Negro officers who prove qualified to fill the assignment. In addition, Negro manpower with special skills or qualifications will be employed as individuals in appropriate overhead and special units.

3. Additional officer supervision will be supplied to units which have a greater than normal percentage of personnel within the AGCT classification of IV and V:

50% or more Class IV and V,
25% increase of officers.

70% or more Class IV and V,
50% increase of officers.

Increased officer personnel will be of company grade.

4. The planning, promulgation, implementation, and revision of this policy will be coordinated by the Assistant for Planning and Policy Coordination, Office of the Assistant Chief of Staff, G-1, War Department General Staff.

5. Officers will be accepted in the Regular Army through the operation of the present integration policy without regard to race.

6. The present policy of according all officers, regardless of race, equal opportunities for appointment, advancement, professional improvement, promotion, and retention in all components of the Army will be continued.

7. Negro Reserve officers will be eligible for active duty training and service in accordance with any program established for other officers of like component and status. All officer requirements for expansion of the Regular establishment as distinguished from the Regular Army and for replacement, regardless of race, will be procured in the existing manner from current sources; namely: ROTC honor students, Officers' Reserve Corps, direct appointments, graduates of officer candidate schools, Regular Army appointments from the Army of the United States and graduates of the United States Military Academy.

8. All enlisted men whether volunteers or selectees will be accorded the same processing through appropriate installations to insure proper classification and assignment of individuals.

9. Surveys of manpower requirements conducted by the War Department will include recommendations covering the positions

in each installation of the Army which could be filled by Negro military personnel.

10. At posts, camps, and stations where both Negro and white troops are assigned for duty, the War Department policies regarding use of recreational facilities and membership in officers' clubs, messes, or similar organizations will be continued in effect.

11. Considering essential military factors, Negro units will be stationed in localities and communities where attitudes are most favorable and in such strength as will not constitute undue burden to the local civilian facilities.

12. Commanders of organizations, installations, and stations containing Negro personnel will be responsible for the execution of the War Department policy.

13. Commanders of all echelons of the Army will insure that all personnel under their command are thoroughly indoctrinated with the necessity for the unreserved acceptance of the provisions of the policy.

When the foregoing recommendations were first publicized in March, 1946, Negroes received it with mixed reactions. Some of the newspapers hailed it as a new departure for the Negro in the armed forces. Others condemned it as showing practically no improvement in the segregation policy.

Two of the leading organizations, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People and the National Urban League, gave it faint praise, for the most part, belittling its ameliorative factors. They expressed disappointment in its failure to abolish discrimination but said that it showed some improvement over past policies.

Negroes in general were in accord with the announced provision to organize Negroes in smaller units than divisions and to place these units in

divisions with white units on the order of what was called racially mixed units in the First Army during the latter part of World War II. (See "Mixed Units.")

The announced provisions with which all Negroes were most pleased were the integration of small Negro

units into larger army units with white troops, the stationing of Negro units in communities where attitudes are most favorable to them, the unrestricted use of camp recreational facilities, and more opportunities for Negroes to serve as commissioned officers.

USO SERVICE

The United Service Organizations, Incorporated, organized in February, 1941, in keeping with an agreement with the federal government, sought to provide recreational services in the United States to men and women of the armed forces and to war workers in certain production areas. Centers were set up in all parts of continental United States where the armed forces were stationed in representative numbers.

In some places in the North, Negroes were welcomed to all USO centers, even though in some cities facilities were set up in colored neighborhoods and staffed by colored workers. But in the South, separate buildings and facilities were set aside for the exclusive use of colored servicemen.

The organizations composing the USO were the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the National

Catholic Community Service, the Jewish Welfare Board, the Salvation Army, and the Travelers' Aid Association.

At the peak period of USO service, in the spring of 1944, there were 300 clubs staffed by Negro personnel and 12 staffed by Negroes and whites. There were 28 Travelers' Aid case service units with interracial staffs and 25 Travelers' Aid lounges staffed by Negroes.

There were 42 states and the District of Columbia with one or more USO operations primarily for Negroes.

At the end of 1945 this service had tapered off about 35 percent.

(See Negro participation in USO camp shows under "Stage, Screen, and Radio.")

Henry W. Pope is director of Negro service of the USO and the national offices are located at 350 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

The Red Cross, one of the most important and necessary agencies connected with the war, was nevertheless a vexatious, war-time dilemma to Negroes. Its ministrations, especially abroad, were appreciated by Negroes generally, and among the war-time agencies, the Red Cross, many believed, came nearest to fulfilling the promise of equal—though mostly separate—accommodations and material benefits.

In certain areas abroad, clubs were set up staffed wholly by Negroes, yet there were no announced restrictions

preventing Negro servicemen or women from using the facilities of any and all clubs and field installations. According to pronouncement of the publicity director, all clubs and facilities were "open to white and colored alike. That's definitely our policy."

In some instances, however, at overseas clubs staffed by whites, Negro servicemen who sought service were openly refused or subtly rebuffed in various ways.

For example, a Negro sergeant in India wrote that four of his men who visited a large city there on a pass and

applied at the Red Cross center for accommodations were told that the place was "out of bounds for colored soldiers," and were directed to the "colored club." At the "colored club" there were no available accommodations, and the men had considerable trouble in finding shelter in the city.

John H. Faulk, white, a former assistant field director in Cairo, Egypt, related in a New York daily a long story of discrimination and rebuffs of Negro soldiers in that Far East area. He said he was unable to have conditions remedied, so he resigned.

Puncturing the protestations or pretensions of non-discrimination was an occurrence at the Forest Glenn Annex of the Walter Reed Hospital at Washington in 1944.

The Red Cross had advertised a dance at the annex to which the patients were invited. But when the dance got under way and a few Negro patients began to dance with some women who were visiting them, a Red Cross worker objected and insisted that the Negro couples leave the floor. The Negro soldiers protested and were supported by many white patients, so the dance was discontinued.

There were many such incidents reported in the home camp areas and abroad. On the other hand, instances of true democracy-at-work in Red Cross installations were also reported from many places.

Within the pattern of "equal but

separate" services, there was not often ground for complaint, for there was liberal effort to provide acceptable facilities for Negroes wherever large groups were serving. This was notably true of foreign fields. Besides, inestimable and otherwise unobtainable services of various kinds were furnished to many Negro soldiers.

By May, 1944, a total of 139 Negroes (50 men and 89 women) were reported working in Negro-staffed-clubs and in field service in four theaters of war—31 in Australia, 7 in the China-Burma-India Theater, 77 in Great Britain and 24 in North Africa. This number had increased to 250 by August, 1945. They included field directors and assistant field directors, recreation workers, program directors, personnel service directors and staff assistants.

The services and ministrations of the Red Cross are not confined to the military establishments, but cover widespread activities in the domestic field.

Of Negro workers stationed in this country, about 30 were employed, as of August 31, 1945, in the national headquarters in Washington, D.C., some as correspondents, to take care of inquiries, and others in various clerical capacities.

With the end of the war the Red Cross continued to employ and to send Negro workers overseas for club and hospital work, as well as personnel services.

THE BLOOD BANKS CONTROVERSY

The fight against the policy of separating "Negro blood" and "white blood" in the so-called blood banks which were maintained by the Red Cross, chiefly for treatment of war casualties, showed no abatement in the latter months of the war.

The controversy concerning the matter, which began in November, 1941 and ran through 1942 and 1943, had lost none of its inconsistencies and none of its irritations when it was re-

newed early in 1944. [Earlier information may be found in *The Negro Handbook*, 1944].

The Red Cross continued to place responsibility for the practice on the armed services. In explanation, Jesse O. Thomas, Negro adviser for the Red Cross, stated in February, 1944, that it was bound by its charter, issued by Congress, to perform its war-connected services in accordance with the requests of the armed services.

By 1944, the Navy had somehow dropped out of consideration, but the controversy continued to be waged between Negro civilians and the Army.

In March, 1944, Surgeon General Kirk, of the United States Army, when asked at a press conference whether the Army still insisted on its policy of separation, and whether any consideration was being given to a change, replied that there had been no change and that he knew no reason why there should be any.

Reminded of the statement of scientists that there was no difference in the blood of Negro and other persons, he said: "There is no difference. I perfectly agree with you. But we might get into worse water than we are in now if we swim around too much."

Still the calls for blood donors went on, and many Negroes pocketed their resentment, swallowed their indignation, and responded. But a few were refused. There were several instances reported in the press where Negroes, while admitting the need of the blood for the armed forces and the fact that there was no limitation or discrimination in its use, still insisted that they could not conscientiously condone the practice of separation by donating their blood. Some influential Negro newspapers took the same stand and even advised readers to refuse to contribute to the Red Cross drives for funds.

On the death of Norman H. Davis, in July, 1944, Basil O'Connor was made chairman of the Red Cross. Since Mr. O'Connor was a former partner of the late President Roosevelt in a New York law firm, Negroes anticipated that he would change the procedure of separating the blood plasma of Negroes and whites in the blood banks. However, when he was asked to halt the separation procedure, he said that he thought that "from the point of view of all the people of the United States, the present arrange-

ment is the best possible in all the circumstances."

So the struggle went on, through protests, appeals, and demonstrations. However, Negroes in general continued to support the drives for funds for the Red Cross and to donate their blood.

In December of 1944, a correspondent at the front in Europe sent a news story saying that there was no evidence of segregation of blood plasma at the front; that if there was any labeling to indicate race, it was removed before the product reached the Medical Corps. The correspondent said:

"I have seen blood plasma used to bring back life to soldiers from whom all signs of living had disappeared. No one has ever asked the race of the donor. I have never heard it mentioned. In scores of interviews with Army doctors treating combat patients, only a few have heard of the Red Cross segregation policy in handling blood donations."

To clinch the matter, the correspondent sent with his story actual labels from Army blood plasma cartons. Nowhere on them was there any racial identification.

As April of 1945 was drawing to a close, and the armies were closing in on Berlin, a delegation made a last effort to have the Army renounce its sanction of the segregation policy, regardless of whether or not the policy was actually being carried out at the front.

Brig. Gen. F. W. Rankin, who said that he spoke as an adviser of the Surgeon General of the Army, defended the policy and announced its continuance on the ground that a change would "greatly militate against" the successful carrying out of the program of collecting plasma—almost the exact words used by Army spokesmen nearly two years before.

MERCHANT MARINE

Source: United States Maritime Commission

It is estimated that roughly 24,000 Negroes are, or have been, employed in the Merchant Marine during World War II. This is a rough estimate based on a brief study of ship arrivals in the port of New York.

There has never been any attempt to set up files of seamen by color or race by the War Shipping Administration and it is impossible to make accurate estimates of the proportion of Negro seamen in a labor force of some quarter of a million men, according to Maritime Commission spokesmen.

During the war, Negroes worked in every capacity aboard ship: masters, radio operators, purser-pharmacists, mates, able and ordinary seamen, mates and engineers, wipers, oilers, firemen-watertenders, cooks and cook-bakers, and messmen.

No estimates are available as to the actual number of Negro officers in the Merchant Marine. However, possession of a license does not necessarily mean that the man is serving as an officer.

There were four Liberty ships named for Negro merchant seamen

lost in active service in the Merchant Marine.

Fourteen Liberty ships were named for noted Negroes and 4 Victory ships named for Negro colleges.

There has been one Negro who graduated from the United States Merchant Marine Cadet Corps—Joseph B. Williams, of Annapolis, Md. He went on active duty with the Navy, the first Negro to be made an officer in the Naval Civil Engineer Corps. One Negro is enrolled in the United States Marine Cadet Corps—Junius L. Moore, of LaMott, Pa.

Many Negro seamen have been graduated at Fort Trumbull and Alameda Officers' Schools. There have been Negroes in practically every class; no distinction is made. Nor is there segregation or discrimination in employment or in the living quarters on merchant ships.

Four Negroes were captains of Liberty ships during the war. They were Hugh Mulzac, Adrian T. Richardson, John Godfrey, and Clifton Lastic. Many others have been ship officers of lower status, serving over racially mixed crews.

UNITED STATES SHIPS NAMED FOR NEGROES

Early in 1942 the United States began the construction of a special type of vessel to be used in the military service under the control of the Maritime Commission. The vessels, called Liberty ships, were designed to be primarily ocean-going cargo ships of about 10,500 tons.

By the end of 1943, several hundred of these vessels had been constructed and launched in a dozen shipyards on various coasts. Seven of these ships had been named for outstanding Negro persons. Construction continued through 1944, and by November, fourteen ships so named had been launched.

Four of these ships had Negro cap-

tains, three of whom were born abroad. All of the ships had racially mixed crews of officers and men. None of the captains reported any difficulties growing out of differences of race.

Of these fourteen ships, all survived the war except two. These two were lost through enemy action, with no blame attached to captains or crews. The *Frederick Douglass* was sunk by a German submarine in the North Atlantic, early in 1944. Captain Richardson and the crew were rescued. He was then given command of another Liberty ship, the *Robert Lowry*, which was not one of those named for Negroes.

The *Robert L. Vann* was sent to the bottom in European waters early in 1945 by an underwater explosion believed to have been caused by a mine. There were no casualties among the crew. Several months before, Captain Godfrey, the Negro master, had been transferred to the command of the *John H. Murphy*.

During 1944, the rate of construction of Liberty ships was being reduced, and a larger, faster cargo ship, called the Victory ship, was being constructed.

While the naming of ships in honor of individual Negroes was going on, the Maritime Commission was assigning to a group of the Victory ships the names of the nations that had signed the Declaration of the United Nations.

On July 13, 1944, the *Haiti* was launched and on April 20, 1944, the *Ethiopia*. Liberia signed in April, 1944, but all United Nations names had been assigned by this time, so no ship was named for Liberia.

Late in the year 1944 it was decided that the last 100 of the Liberty ships to be constructed would be named for merchant seamen who had lost their lives through enemy action. Four of this group of ships were named for Negroes. They were launched between December, 1944, and February, 1945.

Early in 1945, in the Maritime Commission's ship program, the naming of Victory ships for existing American universities and colleges was inaugurated. This program had not progressed far before the cessation of hostilities in Europe brought to an end the construction of war-emergency cargo vessels. However, four ships named for Negro institutions were launched in April and May, 1945.

In addition to the Liberty ships and Victory ships that were named for individual Negroes and for Negro institutions, one warship, constructed in 1943, was named for a Negro naval man who was killed while rendering heroic service in an engagement.

LIBERTY SHIPS

The Booker T. Washington

Launched September 29, 1942, at the Wilmington, Cal., shipyard, of the California Shipbuilding Corporation, and shortly afterward put into service with a Negro captain, Hugh Mulzac, and a racially mixed crew. Named in honor of the founder of Tuskegee Institute in Alabama.

The George Washington Carver

Launched May 7, 1943, at the Richmond, Cal., shipyard of the Kaiser Company. Named in honor of the internationally known scientist of Tuskegee Institute.

The Frederick Douglass

Launched May 22, 1943, at the Bethlehem—Fairfield Shipyard at Baltimore, Md. Named in honor of the famous abolitionist statesman. The captain, a Negro, Adrian Richardson, was born in the Dutch West Indies.

The John Merrick

Launched July 11, 1943, at the shipyards of the North Carolina Shipbuilding Company in Wilmington, N.C. Named for one of the founders of the North Carolina Mutual Life Insurance Company in Durham, one of the largest Negro businesses in the nation.

The Robert L. Vann

Launched October 19, 1943, at the yards of the New England Shipbuilding Corp. at South Portland, Me. Named in honor of one of the founders of the *Pittsburgh Courier*, who later served as assistant to the United States Attorney General. The captain, a Negro, John Godfrey, is a native of Brooklyn, N.Y.

The Paul Laurence Dunbar

Launched October 19, 1943, at the yards of the California Shipbuilding Corporation at Wilmington, Cal. Named in honor of a famous poet who was born in Dayton, O., in 1872.

The James Weldon Johnson

Launched December 12, 1943, at the yards of the California Shipbuilding Corporation in Wilmington, Cal. Named in honor of the noted diplomat, poet and author.

The John Hope

Launched January 29, 1944, at the Permanente Metal Corp. Shipyard No. 2, Richmond, Cal. Named for the late president of Atlanta University who spent most of his life in educational work.

The John H. Murphy

Launched March 29, 1944, at the Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyard, Baltimore, Md. Named for the founder of the Afro-American Newspapers.

The Toussaint L'Ouverture

Launched April 4, 1944, at the Permanente Metals Corp. Shipyard, No. 2, at Richmond, Cal. Named for the noted Haitian soldier and statesman, who is termed the liberator of Haiti.

The Robert S. Abbott

Launched April 13, 1944, at the Permanente Metals Corp. Shipyard No. 2, Richmond, Cal. Named for the founder of the *Chicago Defender*, national and local weekly newspaper.

The Harriet Tubman

Launched June 3, 1944, at the yards of the New England Shipbuilding Corp., South Portland, Me. Named in honor of a former slave who played an important part in the abolitionist movement and "Underground Railway."

The Edward A. Savoy

Launched July 19, 1944, at the Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyard, Baltimore, Md. Named in honor of a man who was confidential messenger for 22 Secretaries of State.

The Bert Williams

Launched November 18, 1944, at the yards of the New England Shipbuilding Corp., South Portland, Me. Named

in honor of the noted comedian and pioneer producer of all-Negro musical comedies. The captain, a Negro, Clifton Lastic, was born in the British West Indies.

**SHIPS NAMED FOR NEGRO
MERCHANT SEAMEN*****The James Kyron Walker***

Launched December 15, 1944, at the yards of the Todd-Houston Shipbuilding Corp., Houston, Tex. Named in honor of second cook on the S.S. *Gulf America*.

The Robert J. Banks

Launched December 20, 1944, at the yards of the J. A. Jones Construction Co., Brunswick, Ga. Named in honor of a messman on the S.S. *Gulf America*.

The William Cox

Launched December 30, 1944, at the yards of the J. A. Jones Construction Co., Brunswick, Ga., named in honor of a fireman on the S.S. *David H. Atwater*.

The George A. Lawson

Launched February 21, 1945, at the yards of the New England Shipbuilding Corp., South Portland, Me. Named in honor of a messboy on the tug *Menominee*.

**VICTORY SHIPS NAMED FOR
NEGRO COLLEGES*****The Fisk Victory***

Launched April 25, 1945, at the Permanente Metals Corp. Shipyard No. 2, Richmond, Cal. Named for Fisk University in Nashville, Tenn.

The Tuskegee Victory

Launched May 8, 1945, at the yards of the Oregon Shipbuilding Corp., Portland, Ore. Named for Tuskegee Institute in Alabama.

The Howard Victory

Launched May 14, 1945, at the Bethlehem-Fairfield Shipyard, Baltimore, Md. Named for Howard University in Washington, D.C.

The Lane Victory

Launched May 31, 1945, at the yards of the California Shipbuilding Corp., Wilmington, Cal. Named for Lane College in Jackson, Tenn.

WARSHIP***The U.S.S. Harmon***

First and only United States warship named in honor of a Negro. Launched

July 25, 1943, at the Fore River Plant of the Bethlehem Steel Company at Quincy, Mass. Named in honor of a mess attendant who lost his life while serving aboard the battleship *San Francisco* in action against the Japanese in the Battle of Guadalcanal, November 12 and 13, 1942. He was awarded the Navy Cross posthumously.

INDIVIDUAL AWARDS FOR HEROISM AND EXTRAORDINARY ACHIEVEMENT WORLD WAR II

The lists of awards which follow cover those that were given by the War and Navy Departments for actions cited as of extraordinary gallantry, heroism or outstanding achievement in combat. Since the departments have not released official lists of such cases, the lists herein, which are compiled from government news releases and the newspapers, probably are not complete, except for the Distinguished Service Cross and the Navy Cross awards in World War II.

Besides awards for gallantry, heroism and outstanding achievement, awards are given in other categories—for meritorious accomplishments or services, and for wounds received in action. There are also numerous classes of decorations for services in various combat areas and campaigns.

In a number of instances servicemen were cited by their commanders for heroic actions which went unrewarded by medals, and in other instances there were reports in the Negro newspapers of deeds of outstanding heroism by individual Negro servicemen which were not followed by awards. There were also numerous instances where the particular award which was given the Negro was regarded as inadequate in view of higher awards to white servicemen for similar or less meritorious actions.

The fact that (as in World War I) no Negro was awarded the highest award (the Congressional Medal of

Honor) was widely criticized adversely in the Negro press. It was pointed out that there were numerous instances where deeds of valor by Negroes compared favorably with deeds for which white servicemen received this highest award.

This award was instituted in 1862 and in the years that followed, many instances of the award to Negroes are recorded, but none later than 1898.

A list as complete as could be obtained of Negroes who have received this award, follows the lists of awards in World War II.

Posthumous awards are indicated by an asterisk.

Awards for gallantry, heroism and extraordinary achievement in combat comprise the following categories:

MEDAL OF HONOR

(Sometimes Called Congressional Medal of Honor; Highest Award)

Awarded to any officer or man who distinguishes himself in armed combat by gallantry and intrepidity at the risk of his life above and beyond the call of duty. Conferred by the Army, Navy and Marine Corps.

DISTINGUISHED SERVICE CROSS

(Second Highest)

Awarded to soldiers who display extraordinary heroism in connection with military operations against an armed enemy. Conferred by the Army.

NAVY CROSS

Awarded to any person in the naval service who has distinguished himself by extraordinary heroism or service, not being sufficient to justify the award of the Medal of Honor. Conferred by the Navy.

SILVER STAR

Awarded to any soldier or seaman who is cited for gallantry in action when that gallantry does not warrant the award of a Medal of Honor or a Distinguished Service Cross. Conferred by the Army and Navy.

DISTINGUISHED FLYING CROSS

Awarded to any person who, while serving in any capacity with the Air Corps of the Army or Navy has distinguished himself by heroism or extraordinary achievement while participating in an aerial flight.

DISTINGUISHED SERVICE CROSS

(Asterisks denote posthumous awards)

Baker, 1st Lt. Vernon J., Cheyenne, Wyo.

Citation: "Extraordinary heroism displayed with the 92nd Infantry Division on April 5 and 6, 1945, near Viareggio, Italy. First (then Second) Lieutenant Baker demonstrated outstanding courage and leadership in destroying enemy installations, personnel and equipment during his company's attack against a strongly entrenched enemy in mountainous terrain.

"When his company was stopped by the concentrated fire from several machinegun emplacements, he crawled to one position and destroyed it, killing three Germans. Continuing forward, he attacked an enemy observation post and killed its two occupants. With the aid of one of his men, Lieutenant Baker attacked two more machinegun nests, killing or wounding the four enemy soldiers occupying these positions. He then covered the evacuation of the wounded personnel of his company by

SOLDIER'S MEDAL

Awarded to any member of the Army who distinguishes himself by heroism not involving conflict with the enemy.

NAVY AND MARINE CORPS MEDAL

Awarded to any person in the Navy or Marine Corps who shall have distinguished himself or herself, since December 6, 1941, by heroism not involving actual conflicts.

BRONZE STAR MEDAL

Awarded for heroic or meritorious achievement or service not involving participation in aerial flight.

Note—Only the lists of servicemen who won the three highest awards and awards from foreign governments are given below. The number winning lesser awards is not available, but cursory War Department reports indicate that it probably runs close to a thousand.

occupying an exposed position and drawing the enemy's fire.

"On the following night Lieutenant Baker voluntarily led a battalion advance through enemy mine fields and heavy fire toward the division objective. Lieutenant Baker's fighting spirit and daring leadership were an inspiration to his men and exemplify the highest traditions of the Armed Forces."

Carter, S/Sgt. Edward A., Jr., Los Angeles, Cal.

Citation: "Extraordinary heroism in action on 23 March 1945, near Speyer, Germany. When the tank on which he was riding received a heavy bazooka and small arms fire, Sergeant Carter voluntarily attempted to lead a three-man group across an open field. Within a short time, two of his men were killed and the third seriously wounded.

"Continuing alone, he was wounded five times and finally was forced to take cover. As eight enemy riflemen

attempted to capture him, Sergeant Carter killed six of them and captured the remaining two. He then crossed the field using as a shield his two prisoners from whom he obtained valuable information concerning the position of enemy troops."

Thomas, Capt. Charles L., Detroit, Mich.

Citation: "Extraordinary heroism displayed with the United States Seventh Army during December, 1944, at Climbach, France. While riding in the lead vehicle of a task force organized to storm and capture the village of Climbach, Captain (then First Lieutenant) Thomas's armored scout car was subjected to intense enemy artillery, self-propelled gun, and small arms fire. Although wounded by the initial burst of hostile fire, Captain Thomas signaled the remainder of the column to halt and, despite the severity of his wounds, assisted the crew of the wrecked car in dismounting.

"Upon leaving the scant protection the vehicle afforded, Captain Thomas was again subjected to a hail of enemy fire which inflicted multiple gun shot wounds in his chest, legs and both arms. Despite the intense pain caused by these wounds, the Captain ordered and directed the dispersion and replacement of two antitank guns which in a few moments were effectively returning the enemy fire.

"Realizing that he could no longer remain in command of the platoon, he signaled to the platoon commander to join him. Captain Thomas then thoroughly oriented him on enemy gun dispositions and the general situation. Only after he was certain that his junior officer was in full control of the

situation did he permit himself to be evacuated."

Thomas, Pfc. Jack, Albany, Ga.

Citation: "Extraordinary heroism in connection with military operations against an armed enemy in Germany on 9 April 1945, during action near Harvegrode, Germany.

"Private First Class Thomas courageously led his squad on a mission to knock out an enemy tank, providing heavy caliber support for a hostile road block.

"Skillfully directing the deployment in firing of his squad, he advanced upon the enemy position and hurled two hand grenades wounding several hostile soldiers. When two of his men manning a rocket launcher were wounded, he picked up the weapon and launched two rockets at the enemy, preventing them from manning the tank.

"This gallant soldier then picked up one of the rocket-launching team who was seriously wounded and with utter disregard for the intense small arm and automatic weapon fire, carried his comrade to safety. Private First Class Thomas's heroic leadership and unflinching devotion to duty are in keeping with the finest tradition of the military service."

*Watson, Pvt. George, Birmingham, Ala.

Citation: "Extraordinary heroism—on March 8, 1943, when he lost his life in Portlock Harbor, New Guinea, after assisting several men to safety on a raft from their sinking boat, which had been attacked by Japanese bombers. Overcome by exhaustion, he was pulled under and drowned by the suction of the craft."

NAVY CROSS

Benjamin, St. Mate 2/c Eli, Norfolk, Va.

Citation: "When a Japanese dive bomber attacked from the starboard side of the ship, he (Benjamin) continued to operate his portside gun in

its fire over the flight deck, although it became apparent that the enemy plane was headed directly for his gun tub. His gun fired until the Japanese plane crashed into his tub, October 29, 1944."

*Harmon, Mess Att. Leonard Roy, Cuero, Tex.

Citation: "In addition to invaluable service in caring for the wounded, he deliberately exposed himself to enemy gunfire in an effort to protect a shipmate and as a result was killed, on the U.S.S. *San Francisco*, in action in the Solomon Islands area, November 12 and 13, 1942. Awarded the Navy Cross, posthumously, May 21, 1943; and the United States Destroyer Escort (warship) *Harmon*, launched July 25, 1943, was named in his honor."

Miller, Messman Doris (Dorie), Waco, Tex.

Citation: "Without previous experience, he manned a machine gun in the face of serious fire during the Japanese

attack on Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941, on the battleship *Arizona*, shooting down four enemy planes."

Pinckney, Cook William, Beaufort, S.C.

Citation: "For extraordinary heroism in saving the life of a shipmate on the aircraft carrier *Enterprise* during the battle of Santa Cruz Islands, October 26, 1942. Four of six men at Pinckney's battle station in the ammunition handling room were killed when a bomb exploded nearby. Groping his way out of the wreckage, he found his living shipmate unconscious and lifted him through a hatch to safety before he himself battled his way out of the burning and smoke-filled compartment."

DISTINGUISHED FLYING CROSS

Allen, T/S Geo. H., Columbus, Ga.

Alsbrook, 1st Lt. William N., Kansas City, Kan.

Archer, Lt. Lee A., New York, N.Y.

Bailey, 1st Lt. John A., Jr., Wellington, Kan.

Ballard, Lt. Alton F., Pasadena, Cal.

Baugh, Capt. Howard L., Petersburg, Va.

Bourchosne, Pvt. Maurice R., Lewistown, Me.

Braugh, Capt. Howard L. (see Baugh)

Briggs, 1st Lt. John F., St. Louis, Mo.

Brooks, Capt. Milton R., Glassport, Pa.

Brown, Lt. Roscoe C., New York, N.Y.

Campbell, Maj. William A., Tuskegee Inst., Ala.

Caputo, T/S Anthony

Cisco, Capt. Arnold W., Chicago, Ill.

Coleman, S/Sgt. Lester G., Baltimore, Md.

Cox, 1st Lt. Hannibal M., Chicago, Ill.

Crisco, Capt. Arnold W. (see Cisco)

Curtis, Capt. Samuel L.

Daniels, Capt. John, Harvey, Ill.

Davis, Capt. Alfonza, Omaha, Neb.

Davis, Col. Benjamin O., Jr., Washington, D.C.

Dickson, 1st Lt. Lawrence E., New York, N.Y.

Dort, 1st Lt. Charles W., Elmira, N.Y.
Driver, Capt. Elwood T., Trenton, N.J.

Ellington, 1st Lt. Spurgeon N., Winston-Salem, N.C.

Elsberry, Capt. Joseph D., Langston, Okla.

Fannin, 2d Lt. Richard L., Racine, Wis.

Foyle, T/S John W., Jr., Philadelphia, Pa.

Geer, T/S Robert M., Cleveland, O.

Gleed, Capt. Edward C., Lawrence, Kan.

Goran, Capt. Claude B., Newark, N.J.

Green, 1st Lt. Wm. W., Staunton, Va.

Grey, Capt. George E., Welch, W.Va.

Hall, Capt. Charles B., Brazil, Ind.

Harder, 1st Lt. Richard S., Saratoga Springs, N.Y.

Hays, 1st Lt. Milton S., Los Angeles, Cal.

Haywood, Capt. Vernon L., Raleigh, N.C.

Holsclaw, 1st Lt. Jack D., Spokane, Wash.

Hutchins, Capt. Freddie E., Donalds-ville, Ga.

Jackson, Capt. Leonardo M., Ft. Worth, Tex.

Jackson, Capt. Melvin T., Warrenton, Va.
 Keller, S/Sgt. Philip W., Jr.
 Kirkpatrick, 1st Lt. Felix J., Chicago, Ill.
 Koutsky, S/Sgt. Robert E.
 Lane, Capt. Earl R., Cleveland, O.
 Lanham, 1st Lt. James, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Lester, 1st Lt. Clarence D., Chicago, Ill.
 McDaniels, Capt. Armour G., Martinsville, Va.
 McGee, Capt. Charles E., Champaign, Ill.
 Manning, Capt. Albert H., Jr., Harts-ville, S.C.
 Martin, 1st Lt. Robert I., Dubuque, Ia.
 Morgan, 1st Lt. Dempsey W., Detroit, Mich.
 Perry, Capt. Henry B., Thomasville, Ga.
 Price, 1st Lt. Wm. S., III, Topeka, Kan.
 Pruitt, Capt. Wendell O., St. Louis, Mo.
 Pulham, Capt. Richard C. (see Pul-lam)
 Pullam, Capt. Richard C.
 Rayford, Maj. Lee, Washington, D.C.
 Rhodes, 1st Lt. George M., Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Rick, S/Sgt. Robert M., Milwaukee, Wis.
 Roberts, 1st Lt. Frank E., Boston, Mass.

Roberts, Maj. George S., Fairmont, W.Va.
 Romine, Lt. Roger
 Rose, 1st Lt. Geo. M., Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Sawyer, Capt. Harold E., Columbus, O.
 Smith, 1st Lt. Sherman R., Hamilton, O.
 Steward, Capt. Lowell C., Los Angeles, Cal.
 Stewart, 1st Lt. Harry T., Corona, L.I., N.Y.
 Tate, 1st Lt. Charles, Pittsburgh, Pa.
 Thomas, 1st Lt. Edward, Chicago, Ill.
 Thomas, 1st Lt. Wm. H., Los Angeles, Cal.
 Thompson, 2d Lt. Reed E., New Ro-chelle, N.Y.
 Toppins, Edward L., San Francisco, Cal.
 Turner, Capt. Andrew D., Washington, D.C.
 Turner, 1st Lt. Leonard F., Washing-ton, D.C.
 Walker, 1st Lt. Quitman C., Indianola, Miss.
 Watson, Capt. Dudley M., Frankfort, Ky.
 Weathers, Capt. Luke J., Jr., Memphis, Tenn.
 Westbrook, 1st Lt. Shelby F., Toledo, O.
 Wilkins, 1st Lt. Laurence D., Los Angeles, Cal.
 Wilson, 1st Lt. Bertram W., Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Woods, 1st Lt. Willard L., Los An-geles, Cal.

MISCELLANEOUS AND FOREIGN AWARDS

Edwards, Cpl. George W. (Army)
 French Croix de Guerre
 Flemings, Pvt. Jimmy (Army), Chan-cellor, Ala.
 Medal and Certificate by the Liver-pool (Eng.) Shipwreck and Hu-mane Society
 Green, 1st Lt. William W. (Army), Staunton, Va.
 Partisan Medal for Heroism (Yugo-slavia)
 Jackson, T/Sgt. Arthur, Jr. (Army), Detroit, Mich.
 French Croix de Guerre

Jenkins, Pfc. Ernest A. (Army)
 French Croix de Guerre
 Johnson, Sgt. Macon H. (Army), Charleston, S.C.
 Order of the Soviet Union
 Miller, Pvt. Clarence (Army), Mc-Comb, Miss.
 Medal and Certificate by the Liver-pool (Eng.) Shipwreck and Hu-mane Society
 Rodriguez, T/S Steve (Army)
 French Croix de Guerre

CONGRESSIONAL MEDAL OF HONOR, 1863-1898

(No Negro received this medal in World War II)

U.S.C.T. means United States Colored Troops

ARMY

- | | | | |
|------|--|------|--|
| 1863 | Sgt. William Harvey Carney-Co. C, 54th Mass. Vols. | 1879 | Sgt. Thomas Boyne-Troop C, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. Maj. Christian A. Fleetwood-4th U.S.C.T. | 1879 | Sgt. John Denny-Troop—, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. Alfred B. Hilton-Co. H, 4th U.S.C.T. | 1879 | Sgt. Henry Johnson-Troop D, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Cpl. Charles Veal-Co. D, 4th U.S.C.T. | 1880 | Sgt. George Jordan-Troop K, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. Milton M. Holland-Co. C, 5th U.S.C.T. | 1881 | Sgt. Thomas Shaw-Troop K, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | 1st Sgt. James E. Bronson-Co. D, 5th U.S.C.T. | 1881 | Sgt. George Jordan-Troop K, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | 1st Sgt. Powhatan Beatty-Co. G, 5th U.S.C.T. | 1881 | 1st Sgt. Moses Williams-Troop I, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | 1st Sgt. Robert A. Pinn-Co. I, 5th U.S.C.T. | 1881 | Sgt. Brent Woods-Troop B, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. Maj. Thomas R. Hawkins-6th U.S.C.T. | 1881 | Pvt. Augustus Walley-Troop I, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | 1st Sgt. Alexander Kelly-Co. F, 6th U.S.C.T. | 1887 | Cpl. Clinton Greaves-Troop C, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Cpl. Miles James-Co. B, 36th U.S.C.T. | 1890 | Cpl. William O. Wilson-Troop I, 9th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Pvt. James Gardiner-Co. I, 36th U.S.C.T. | 1890 | Sgt. William McBryar-Troop K, 10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | 1st Sgt. Edward Ratcliffe-Co. C, 38th U.S.C.T. | 1898 | Pvt. Dennis Bell-Troop H, 10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. James H. Harris-Co. B, 38th U.S.C.T. | 1898 | Pvt. Wm. H. Thompkins-Troop M, 10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Pvt. William H. Barnes-Co. C, 38th U.S.C.T. | 1898 | Pvt. Fitz Lee-Troop M, 10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1864 | Sgt. Decatur Dorsey-Co. B, 39th U.S.C.T. | 1898 | Pvt. George H. Wanton-10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1870 | Sgt. Emanuel Stance-Troop F, 9th U.S. Cav. | 1898 | Sgt. Edward L. Baker-10th U.S. Cav. |
| 1877 | Cpl. Clinton Greaves-Troop C, 9th U.S. Cav. | | |

NAVY

- | | | | |
|------|--|------|---|
| 1863 | Robert Blake, Contraband, U.S.S. <i>Marblehead</i> | 1865 | Aaron Anderson, Landsman, U.S.S. <i>Wyandank</i> |
| 1864 | Joachim Pease, Seaman, U.S.S. <i>Kearsarge</i> | 1872 | Joseph B. Noil, Seaman, U.S.S. <i>Powhatan</i> |
| 1864 | John H. Lawson, Landsman, U.S.S. <i>Hartford</i> | 1898 | Daniel Atkins, Ship's Cook, U.S.S. <i>Cushing</i> |
| 1864 | Clement Dees, Seaman, U.S.S. <i>Pontiousc</i> | 1898 | Robert Penn, Fireman, U.S.S. <i>Iowa</i> |

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